



HINDUSTAN YEAR-BOOK

7. WHO'S WHO, 1946

By

S. C. SARKAR

*Author, Book of General Knowledge, Notable
Indian Trials, Calcutta Guide, etc., etc.*

FOURTEENTH YEAR OF ISSUE



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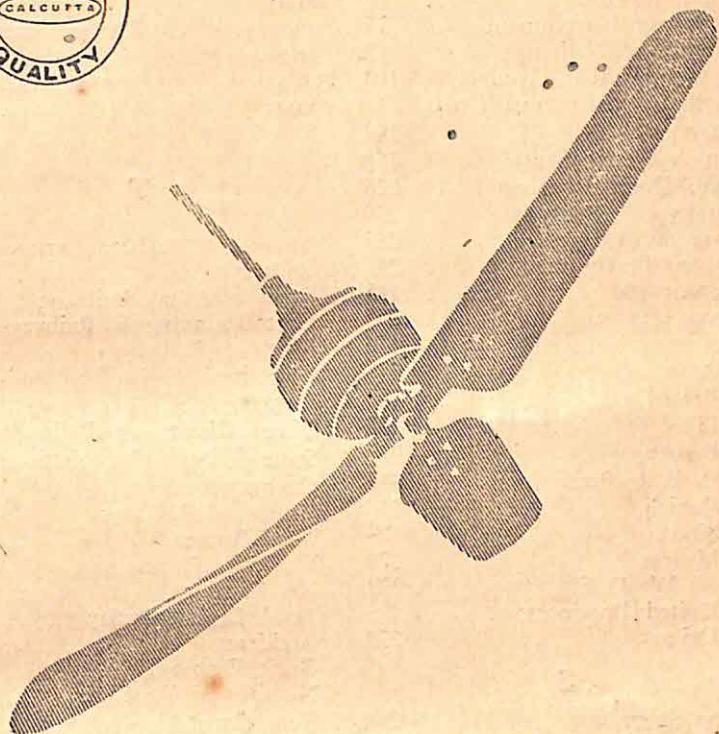
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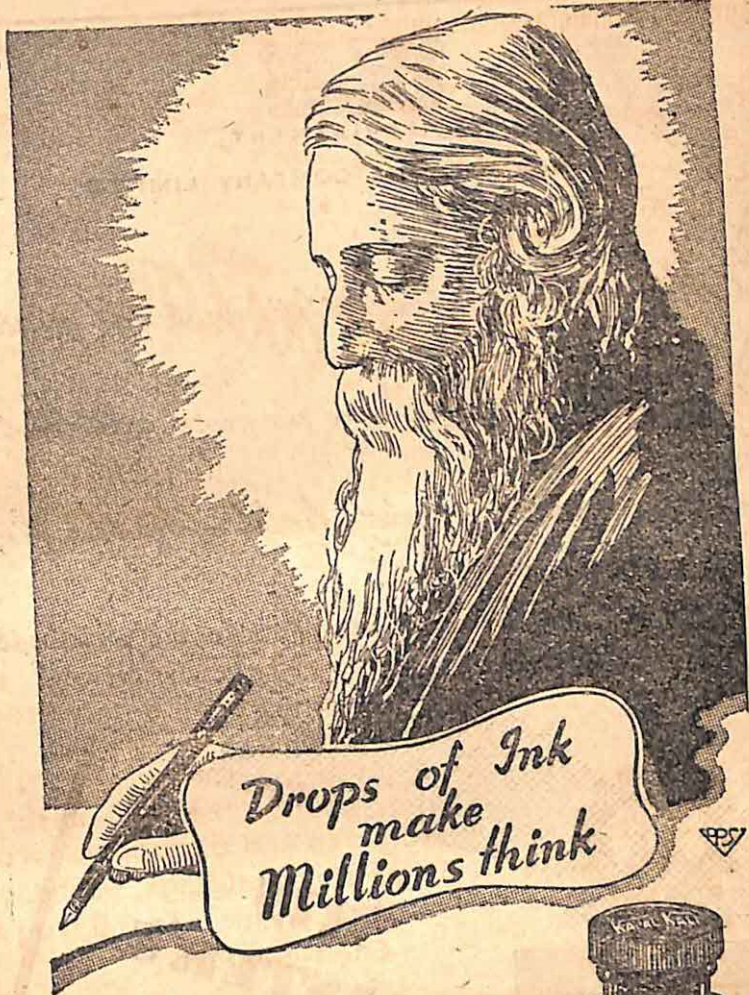


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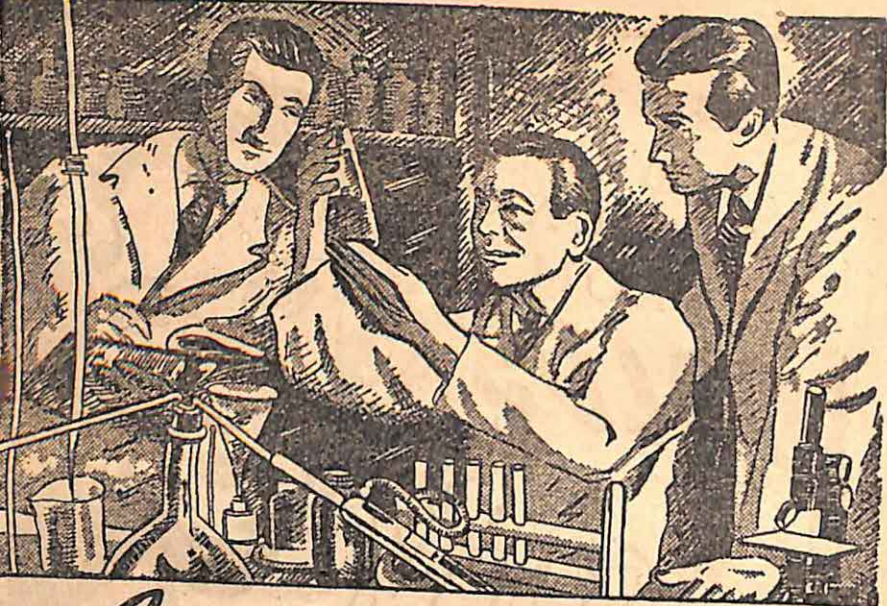
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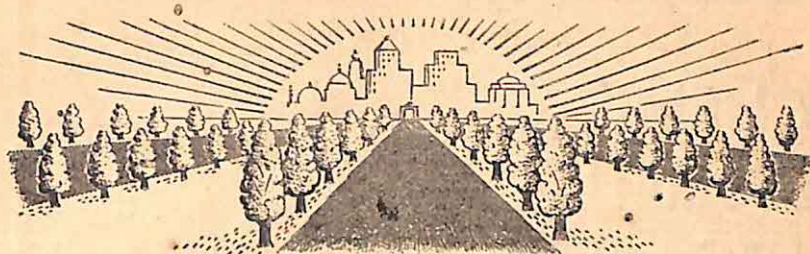
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INDIA AT A GLANCE

Size

The Indian Empire covers an area of 1,581,410 square miles and extends from north to south for a distance of 2,000 miles and from east to west nearly 2,500 miles, its total area being equal to the whole of Europe without Russia or nearly twenty-two times the size of the British Isles. It covers only 3·4 per cent of the land surface of the world and is half the size of U.S.A. It has a land frontier of 4,600 miles and sea frontier of 4,300 miles.

Situation

India lies entirely to the north of the equator and is situated between the latitudes 8° and 37° N and longitudes 61° and 97° E. The Tropic of Cancer passes right through India cutting the country roughly into two halves.

Physical Division

India can be divided into several regions, but broadly speaking, there are *three distinct physical regions*.

1. The Himalayan region.
2. The Indo-Gangetic plain.
3. The Deccan or Plateau of the south.

The *Himalayan Region* stretches along the northern frontier from Afghanistan in the west to Burma in the east, a distance of 1,500 miles with an average width of nearly 200 miles, forming a natural barrier to the north. The Himalayas with Pamirs, Hindukush, Sulaiman and other ranges form a mountain wall shutting off India from the rest of Asia. The Himalayan Region acts as a natural protective wall for India, and provides rain water for the plains by arresting the moisture-bearing clouds of South-West monsoon. During winter it obstructs cold winds of Central Asia from coming to India.

The *Indo-Gangetic* plain consists of alluvial deposits and lies between the Himalayan region of the north and the Deccan of the south. The plain covers an area of 300,000 sq. miles and economically the most developed region. As the name indicates, the plain has two great river systems, the Indus and its tributaries and the Ganges and its tributaries. A third great river, the Brahmaputra, cuts through the Himalayas near their eastern end and joins the Ganges to form a great delta. The land drained by these rivers is alluvial and forms the most fertile region in India. The Indo-Gangetic plain is for its size, the most populous part of India.

The *Deccan*—From the river-plains on the north and from the coast-plains on the east and west of Peninsular India, there rises a great three-

sided plateau called the Deccan. It begins at Vindhya mountains in the north and other two sides are known as Western Ghats and Eastern Ghats. This region is quite unlike the low-lying Indo-Gangetic plain. It is not smooth and flat but a table-land raised from 1,000 to 3,000 feet above sea level and broken up into many river valleys which run seawards among ranges of hills.

Climate and Rainfall

There is no such thing as an Indian climate. Some of the hottest, the coldest, the driest and the wettest areas of the world are to be found in India. The variations of climate depend chiefly on three factors—latitude, distances from the sea and monsoon.

As the greater part of the country lies within the Tropics, the climate is tropical; high temperatures being the rule in the low-lands, lower temperatures in the high-lands. The rain-fall is determined to a great extent by the monsoon. So dependent is India on this annual rainfall that variations from year to year mean prosperity or disaster for millions. There are two such currents, the *South-West monsoon* and *North-East monsoon*. The *South-West monsoon*, as it is called, strikes India about the middle of June. It gives 90 per cent. of the total rain-fall of India. This monsoon reaches the country in two currents—Arabian Sea current and the Bay of Bengal current. The former gives rain to Bombay, the Punjab, and a part of the Central Provinces and the latter to the rest of India and to Burma.

The other current known as *North-East Monsoon* is really South-West monsoon in retreat and flows from the land towards the sea. This current is the cause of wintry rains in Madras and the Punjab.

While Cherapunji in Assam Hills has 460 inches of rain in a year, Upper Sind has about 3 inches only. We can divide the country into four zones according to rainfall: (1) *Wet zone*, where minimum rainfall is 100 inches. This includes west-coast of the Peninsula, outer ranges of Himalayas including Bengal and Assam. (2) *Intermediate zone* (zone of moderate rainfall); it includes portions of Central India, Himalayas to *Godavari river, east coast of the peninsula* and eastern side of the Western Ghats and up to Baroda, where rainfall is between 40 inches and 80 inches. (3) *Dry zone*, where rainfall is less than 40 inches. (4) *Desert zone*, where rainfall is less than 20 inches.

The Indian year is divided into three seasons—the hot (March to May), the rainy (June to October), and the cool (November to February).

Soil of India

Indian soil may be mainly classified under four different heads namely, (1) *the alluvial soils*, (2) *black soils*, (3) *red soils* and (4) *the laterite soils*.

The *alluvial soil* is most fertile and covers greater part of the Northern India between the foot of the Himalayas and the northern slopes of the Vindhyas and extends in a narrow fringe round the coastline of the Peninsula. Territorially they occupy greater parts of Sind, Northern Rajputana, the Punjab, Delhi, United Provinces, Bihar, Bengal, half of

Assam and the East and West Godavari, Kistna and Tanjore districts of Madras.

Red soils cover the whole of Madras, Mysore and south-east Bombay and extend through the east of Hyderabad and the Central Provinces to Orissa and Chota Nagpur. Northwards the red soil extends into greater part of Sonthal Parganas and the Birbhoom district of Bengal, the Mirzapur, Jhansi and Hamirpur district of the United Provinces, the Baghelkhand States of Central India, the Aravallis and the eastern half of Rajputana.

Black soil or black cotton soil is very suitable for cotton cultivation and extends over greater part of Bombay Province, and also Kathiawar, Berar, the western parts of Central Provinces, Central India and Hyderabad, large area of four Deccan districts of Madras and the Ramnad and Tinnivelly districts.

Laterite soils are porous clayey rock found on the summits of the basaltic hills and plateaus of Central India, along the Eastern and Western Ghats of Peninsular India and in Assam. The distinguishing peculiarity of these soils is their acidity.

Frontier

The Himalayan range is an effective barrier against invasion or interference from the north. On the north-east, this can be said with some degree of qualification, for in the past China has knocked at the gate of Nepal and overran Tibet. But North-West frontier offers an open gate of attack to foreign invaders. This frontier has admitted through ages Aryans, Persians, Greeks, Scythians, Huns, Tartars and Mongols who once conquered and occupied large tracts of India. This frontier is vulnerable on two lines, through North-West Frontier Province and through Baluchistan. Four passes lead from Afghanistan into North-West Frontier Province, *i.e.*, Khyber, the Kurram, the Tochi and the Gomal.

Coast Line

Coast line of India lacks in indentations and although about 5,000 miles in length, it has only four openings of importance into land, such as Runn of Cutch and Gulf of Cambay on the west, the Gulf of Mannar between India and Ceylon, and the Gulf of Martaban in Lower Burma. The coasts of India are singularly free from islands and the sea round the coast of India is very shallow and the shores are usually flat and sandy.

River Systems

(1) *Rivers of Northern India*—They all rise in the mountain wall or beyond it. The rivers are fed with waters from the gradual melting of snow. They do not depend entirely for their waters on the monsoon rains.

The three great river systems of Northern India are :—(a) *Indus* river with its five tributaries, *i.e.*, *Jhelum*, the *Chenub*, *Ravi*, the *Beas* and the *Sutlej*; (b) *Ganges* river with a course of fifteen hundred miles, drains Himalaya's southern slopes and with its tributaries, the *Jamuna*, the *Gogra*, the *Gondak*, the *Chamball* and the *Sone*, enters Bay of Bengal through extensive deltas with multitude of channels; (c) *Brakmaputra*

flows down through Tibet, Assam and Eastern Bengal and discharges its floods after a course of sixteen hundred and eighty miles into Bay of Bengal.

(2) *Rivers of Peninsular India*.—They are quite different from the rivers of the Northern India. They rise in the hills of the plateau and they are fed only by monsoon rains. The rivers rise near Western Ghats and flow towards Bay of Bengal. The most important are the *Mahanadi*, *Godavari*, *Kistna* and *Kavery*. In the north of the plateau two important rivers, *Narbada* and *Tapti*, both flow westwards.

Indian Races

The peoples of India are of varied blends—Aryan, Dravidian and Mongolian—with more or less emphasis on one type or other in different parts of the country.

1st—*Proto-Australians* who arrived in India even before they had developed some of their fixed characteristics.

2nd—*Dravidians* who belong to the Mediterranean race and arrived in India from the west.

3rd—*Indo-Aryans* belong to the Nordic or Alpine race who arrived in India from North-West between 2,000 to 1,500 B.C.

4th—*Mongolians* who entered India from North-East and are still to be found in Nepal, Bhutan and Assam.

5th—*Persians, Macedonians, Scythians, Parthians, White Huns* who invaded Northern India from 6th century B.C. to 6th century A.D.

6th—*Arabs, Afghans, Armenians, Jews, Portuguese, and other Europeans* who came in various periods.

The chief races of India and their distribution may be described in the following terms:—

(1) *Indo-Aryans* in the Punjab, Kashmir, and Rajputana and among the higher parts of Northern India.

(2) *Dravidians*, the earliest non-Aryan inhabitants of India occupying Madras, Hyderabad, Central Provinces, most of Central India and Chota Nagpur. They are dark-skinned, curly-haired, long-headed, broad-nosed and thick-lipped.

(3) *Mongolians* in the Indian frontiers of Tibet, Assam and Burma.

These chief races have given rise to several sub-races:—

(1) *Aryo-Dravidians* in the United Provinces, Bihar and parts of Rajputana.

(2) *Mongolo-Dravidians* in the lower Bengal, Orissa and Assam.

(3) *Scytho-Dravidians* in the Marhatta countries, North Western India and Rajputana and possibly formed by the mixture of Dravidian element with Scythian invaders.

(4) *Turko-Iranians* in Baluchistan and North-West Frontier Province. They are the fusion of Turki and Iranian elements.

Aboriginals of India

The aboriginals of India number over twenty-five millions.

Following are the main tribes of India:—(1) *Naga, Garo, Kachari, Khasi, Mikir and Lushai* in Assam; (2) *Santal, Munda and Uraon* in

Bihar and Orissā; (3) *Bhuiya, Bhumij and Khond* in *Orissa*; (4) *Gonds, Baigas, Korkus* in Central Provinces; (5) *Bhils* in Bombay and Rajputana States; (6) *Kurumber, Kanikar, Irular and Yanddi* in S. India.

Population

Population of India has increased to 388,997,955 in 1941 which is 15·2 p.c. over 1931 census and about three-fourth of the population of the British Empire. The average density of population in India is 246 persons per square mile. One man in every five in the world is an Indian; of the 100 Indians 66 are Hindus, 24 Muslims, 6 of tribal origin. The total literates of India is 47 millions. Travancore takes the highest place in India with 47·8 p.c. literates. Nearly one-fourth of the total Indian population belongs to the Indian States. Males in India is more numerous than females. The third largest community of India after Hindus and Muslims is Christians with 7 millions. The aboriginals of India now number twenty-five millions. Of the total Indian population, 200·9 millions are male, 187·9 millions female; 339·2 millions rural and 49·6 millions urban. There are now 58 cities in India with more than 100,000 inhabitants. The population of major communities are distributed as follows:—255·4 million Hindus, 91·7 million Muslims, 25·1 animists, 6·3 Christians, 5·7 Sikhs, 4·7 others.

Languages

According to the census, there are about 225 languages and dialects in India, but many so-called languages are mere small tribal speeches spoken of by insignificant number of people. In reality 24 languages account for more than 96 per cent. of her population.

The most widespread language is Hindustani, a term which covers both *Urdu* and *Hindi*, because though their script is different, they are practically identical languages in points of grammar and syntax and there is a considerable fund of vocabulary common to both. After Hindustani, Bengali is spoken by the largest number of people. It is the language of the 92 per cent. of the people of Bengal and has the richest modern literature. Other principal languages of India are:—*Oriya, Marathi, Gujarati, Sindhi, Kashmir, Punjabi, Assamese, Telugu, Kanarese, Tamil* and *Malayalam*.

Religions

India is the birthplace of two great religions of the world, *Hinduism* and *Buddhism* and is also the chief seat of *Islam* and *Zoroastrianism*. The Islamic faith was first embraced in India in the 12th century though there were Muslim invasions as early as the 8th century. There are not many Buddhists to-day in India. An important religious community in India is the Sikhs. The Jains, very small in number form the most wealthy religious community in India. Parsees are a relatively small group numbering about 100,000. They are mostly business and professional men. Regarding Christianity, tradition places India in the map of Christianity

in the 1st century A.D. when St. Thomas, one of the twelve Apostles is said to have visited Southern India. The Roman Catholics are said to have established their foothold in about 1500 A.D. when the Portuguese took Goa and other sea ports of Western India. The first Protestant mission came in 1706. There are at present a little over 6 million Christians in India.

Education

The literacy figure according to latest census is 11·12, while in 1931 eight people only in one hundred could read and write. Roughly there are five literate men for one literate woman.

Foundation of University Education began with the establishment of Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in the year 1857. Now nearly every province has its own University. There are altogether 18 Universities with 128,673 students in them.

The number of primary schools in India is about 200,000 with 10,510,353 number of students. None of the Provincial Governments have yet been able to provide for compulsory primary education for boys and girls.

The number of students in all recognised and unrecognised institutions in India was 15,769,890 in 1940-41 and the total expenditure for 1940-41 was Rs. 29,84,03,205. The average annual cost per scholar in all institutions from a university to a lower primary school amounted to Rs. 19-12-6.

Public Health

The level of health in India is reflected in the expectation of life in British India which is only 27 years compared with 67 years of Australia and 63 years of England-Wales.

The major preventible diseases of India are small-pox, typhoid, dysentery, cholera and malaria. Malaria is the largest public health problem in India and it causes more deaths in India than any other single disease. Deaths from this disease number about a million and number of cases is about 100 millions.

There are approximately 42,000 doctors in India, of whom two-thirds are licentiates. There are less than 4,500 nurses throughout the country.

The rate of infant mortality is 162 per thousand compared with 58 in England and Wales and 54 in U. S. A.

In India though 90 p.c. of the people live in villages, but 90 p.c. of the doctors practise in towns.

The birth rate at 34-36 per mille, shows no tendency to fall and death rate now varies between 22 and 24 per mille.

A large proportion of the general population suffers from varying degrees and forms of malnutrition, while actual deficiency diseases are all too common.

Agriculture

India is a land of peasants, living dangerously near the margin of subsistence. The rural population of India is 87 per cent. of the total

population, out of which 66 per cent. is directly engaged in cultivation. In India no homogeneous agricultural system can be adopted due to regional peculiarities. The cropping and agricultural practices vary to such an extraordinary degree that no general principles can be adopted. The main food crops grown in India are rice, wheat, gram and jawar-bajra which account for about 80 per cent. of her total production of food grains.

The area annually brought under cultivation in British India is 267 million acres of which over 52 million acres are artificially irrigated and of this 267 million acres, 217 millions are cultivated with food crops.

The Indian Agriculture furnishes means of subsistence of one-fifth of the human race. It leads the world in jute, lac, tea, groundnut, cane sugar. Her position as regards rice, linseed, millets, is almost supreme in the world.

The agriculture in India is a seasonal industry. There are two principal cropping seasons—*kharif*, the summer rain cultivation and *rabi*, the winter rain cultivation. *Kharif* crops are sown with the outbreak of monsoon and harvested in September or October. Principal *kharif* crops are rice, maize, millets, pulses, oilseeds, cotton, jute, hemp, sugarcane, tobacco, etc. *Rabi* crops are sown in October and harvested in March or April. The chief *rabi* crops are wheat, barley, gram, peas, beans, linseed, mustard, potatoes, root and tuber vegetables.

Animals

Indian climatic conditions have naturally developed a great variety of animal life and the number of animal species found in India is much greater than that in Europe.

In India, animals are chiefly seen in the valleys of the Himalayas (*i.e.*, *Terai Forests*) extending from Kashmir to the Brahmaputra Valley, on the Eastern and Western Ghats and in the jungles of Central Provinces and Central India.

(1) Wild Animals—*lion* is almost extinct and is now preserved in the Gir of Kathiawar. *Tigers* are found all over India. *Leopards* (hunting leopards), *Panthers*, *Cheetahs* are common in the hills and plains. *Hycenas*, *foxes*, *wolves*, *jackals* and *wild cats* are available everywhere. *Elephants* are found in the lower Himalayan valley, the Brahmaputra valley and forests of Nilgiri hills. Bears are available on the hills everywhere. *Deer* and *antelopes* are commonly seen in the plains.

Yaks are only seen in higher Himalayas. *Rhinoceros* live in the swamps of Assam, Burma, North Bengal, Nepal. *Monkeys*, *Porcupines*, *Hares*, *wild Hogs* are to be seen everywhere.

(2) Domestic Animals—*Goats*, *sheep*, *horses*, *ponies*, *asses*, *mules*, *bullocks*, *buffaloes*, are available everywhere. *Camels* are seen in the desert districts of Rajputana, Sind and Punjab.

(3) *Birds*—*Vultures*, *kites*, *hawks*, *wild ducks*, *wild geese*, *partridges*, *pigeons*, *parrots*, *cranes*, *peacocks*, *snipe*, *sand grouse* are available everywhere.

(4) *R* *les*—Crocodile are seen everywhere. The deadly snakes of India are *Cobras*, *Russel's Vipers*, *Keraits*, *Hamadryeds*.

(3) *Fish*—Most numerous fish are of carp family. The finest fish from angler's point is *Masher* found in all hill streams. The richest and tasty fish of India is *hilsha*.

Vegetation

All the main types of vegetation region—*forest*, *grassland*, *scrubland* and *desert* are represented in India. Luxuriant forests are found in areas which have heavy rainfall—the Himalayas, Assam, Western Ghats. Smaller and less luxuriant forests occur in the drier regions of the Central Plateau and Valley of the Deccan. Dry forest is found in the drier parts of Punjab. Grassland occurs in the regions of low rainfall and in the higher parts of mountains, such as found in Central Plateau and in the high land between the Deccan rivers. Patches of grassland also occur at intervals in the Himalayan forests. Scrubland is the region with deficient rainfall and where rain seldom or never falls, the land is desert. The Thar Desert with a border of scrubland lies between the Indus and the Luni river. The scrubland also occurs on parts of highland of the peninsula.

Indian Geopolitics

India consists of (1) British India, (2) Indian States and (3) Foreign possessions. British India is divided into eleven Governors' Provinces and Five Chief Commissioners' Provinces. The Governors' Provinces are as follows :—1. Bengal (Capital—Calcutta). 2. Madras (Capital—Madras). 3. Bihar (Capital—Patna). 4. United Provinces (Capital—Lucknow). 5. Punjab (Capital—Lahore). 6. Bombay (Capital—Bombay). 7. Sind (Capital—Karachi). 8. Assam (Capital—Shillong). 9. C. P. & Berar (Capital—Nagpur). 10. Orissa (Capital—Cuttack). 11. N.W.F.P. (Capital—Peshawar).

Following are the Chief Commissioners' Provinces—1. Baluchistan (Capital—Quetta). 2. Coorg (Capital—Coorg). 3. Ajmer-Merwara (Capital—Ajmer). 4. Delhi (Capital—Delhi). 5. Andaman & Nicobar Islands.

Indian States are 562 in number. They range in magnitude from Hyderabad with a territory three times the size of Ireland to petty domains measuring a few square miles.

Portugal and France hold foreign possessions in India. The Portuguese possessions in India are situated within the limits of Bombay Presidency. They consist of Province of Goa, territory of Daman and a little island Diu. The Portuguese possessions have an area of 1,537 sq. miles and a population of 650,000.

The French possessions in India consist of five settlements. They aggregate 203 square miles and had a total population of 323,295 in 1941. Following are the French Settlements—Chandernagore in Bengal, Mahe *on the Malabar Coast*, Karikal *on the Coromandel Coast*, Yanaon *on the Coast of Northern Circars* and Pondicherry *on the Coromandel Coast*.

INDIAN FACTS IN A NUTSHELL

Population

No country in the world except China has a larger population than India.

One of every five persons in the world is an Indian. India's total population is 388,997,955 inhabitants and area 1,581,410 sq. miles.

Nearly one-fourth of the total Indian population belongs to the Indian States. There are 93,189,233 peoples in the Indian States.

There has been net addition of 80 million souls in India in twenty years.

87 p.c. of the population live on entirely rural life.

The most densely populated province in India is Bengal which has 742 persons per sq. mile.

Males in India are more numerous than females and this sex disparity is more prominent in the Punjab, N.W.F. Province and Bombay.

Madras is the most Christian of all provinces, her Christian population amounts to as much as 4 per cent.

The urban population of India in 1941 was 13 p.c. and the rural population 87 p.c. The increase of urban population since 1931 census is 2 p.c. only.

The aboriginals of India now number twenty-five millions and are distributed throughout India.

The agricultural population of Bengal is about 40,000,000 and the average holding in Bengal is about 3.5 acres (*vide White paper issued in England on Bengal famine in Oct. 1943*).

The Ganges and the Indus systems contain nearly half the total population of India.

The number of cities with one lakh or more inhabitants in India was 35 in 1931 and is 58 now. The population living in cities of this size has increased over the decade from 9.1 to 16.5 millions, a rise of

81 p.c. which is in notable contrast with the 15 p.c. increase over the whole country.

The United Provinces has always had more large towns than any other province.

In all-India, out of 100 Indians, 66 are Hindus, 24 Muslims and 6 are of tribal origin in 1941, but in 1921, out of every 100 Indians 68 were Hindus and 22 were Muslims. So the Muslims have increased from 22 p.c. to 24 p.c.

Christian element is stronger in Madras than in any other province of British India—next comes Bombay and the Punjab.

In two decades, the strength of the Sikh community increased from 3.2 millions to 5.7 millions, representing an increase of roughly 50 p.c.

There is a general increase of literacy in the case of India as a whole to 70 p.c. over 1931; of this, male increase is 60 and female 150. Bombay leads the provinces as it did in 1931. Bengal follows next. But Travancore and Cochin are far ahead in India as regards literacy; the combined figure of the whole population of the two States together is 56 p.c. representing 56 for men and 34 for women. The later figure is four times the highest from any province of British India.

There is steady decline of female sex ratio in India and this applies to all communities. In the case of only two Provinces, *viz.*, Madras and Orissa is there anything like numerical equality of sexes; in all other provinces the deficiency of women is very striking.

Two-thirds of the population live in one-third of the country.

The number of persons of European origin is 135,000, *i.e.*, about one in every three thousand population.

The deficiency of women is greater in the north and less in the south.

Nowhere in the world, except perhaps in Soviet Russia, does a country contain so many varied racial types as in India.

The third largest community in India after Hindus and Muslims are Christians who number only 7 millions.

AGRICULTURE

India is a land of peasants, living dangerously near the margin of subsistence.

The rural population of India is 87 per cent. of the total population, out of which 66 p.c. is directly engaged in cultivation.

India is next to the United States of America, the biggest producer of raw cotton. America and India together account for about 60 to 75 p.c. of the world's total produce of cotton. India is the second largest cotton exporting country.

The reported net area under food crops *per capita* is about 0.72 acres (vide *Famine Commission's Report, Vol. II*).

India enjoys world's monopoly of jute.

India is perhaps the largest producer of oil-seeds—such as groundnuts, castor seed, linseed, etc.

India ranks first among the world's tobacco producers.

India has a huge area of 360 million acres sown with crops, of which 80 p.c. are food and fodder crops.

Rice is the staple food of 240 out of 400 million people of India.

Though India has a third of the world's total cattle, *i.e.*, 200 millions, yet the average yield of an Indian cow is just over 2 lbs. a day compared with the corresponding yield per cow of 20.5 lbs. in Holland, 15 lbs. in England and 14 lbs. in New Zealand.

India to-day is the largest producer of sugar.

One-third of the world's cattle population is in India. India produces the largest amount of cattle hides.

Four important agricultural products of India are rice, wheat, jute and cotton. India produces one-third of the entire world products of rice.

India is the largest producer of vegetable oil seeds.

India has the largest monopoly of the lac production in the world.

India is one of the most fertile countries in the world.

Most valuable forest produce in the world is the sandalwood oil in Mysore and commands nearly three-fourths of the world's production.

Indo-Gangetic plain is one of the greatest alluvial tracts in the world.

Roughly about one-half of the total irrigated area of the world lies in India.

Seventy-six per cent. of the total area under tea in India lies in Assam and two contiguous districts (Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri) of North Bengal.

Taking *gur* and sugar, India is the largest producing country in the world. It is the second largest national industry. At the present time India has about the largest area under cane cultivation in the world. United Provinces and Bihar normally produce 80 p.c. of the total output of the country.

India ranks first in the acreage and production of groundnuts and is now the biggest producer of groundnuts oil in the world.

The average yield of rice per acre in India in 1938-39 was 731 lbs. compared with 1,480 lbs. in the U. S. A., 2,307 lbs. in Japan, 2,079 lbs. in Egypt and 3,000 lbs. in Italy between the years 1936-37 to 1938-39.

Main food crops grown in India are rice, wheat, gram and jawar-bajra which account for about 80 per cent. of her total production of food grains.

The normal production of food grains in India is estimated at 50 to 51 million tons a year and the consumption needs, on the basis of one lb. a day of food grains per adult, amount to 50.5 million tons. The total quantity of food grains necessary is 55 million tons. Hence there is a deficit of four to five million tons of food grains each year.

India's largest timber market is on the Jhelum River which imports annually something like 8,000,000 cubic feet of timber—nearly all of which comes from the Kashmir forests.

About 350 million pounds of tea are exported from India every year.

Over 85 p.c. of the raw cotton used by the Indian Cotton Textile Industry is Indian grown.

With its 43 million sheep India is estimated to produce annually about 86 million pounds of wool.

While the population of India increased to 388 millions in 1941, the main food grain production in India had remained practically constant between 50 to 51 million tons with small variation from year to year. The combined acreage of rice and wheat has fluctuated between 107 and 109 million acres between 1937-38 and 1942-43.

Ganges plain ranks among the most productive and populated regions of the world.

The total livestock is 255 million heads. India has the largest bovine population in the world i.e. 167 millions out of world's total of 690 millions.

MINERALS

Greater proportion of the world's requirements of better quality sheet mica perhaps over 80 p.c. is supplied from Bihar.

Next only to U. S. A. and France, India has the largest reserves of iron ore. She is the second largest producer in the British Empire.

India has the biggest reserves of manganese ore and Central Provinces is the largest producer and supplies more than 60 p.c. of India's total production of manganese.

India commands three quarters of world's supply of mica.

India is the world's main source of supply of ilmenite, monazite and zircon.

More than 90 p.c. of India's coal to-day comes from Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. Jharia coalfield supplies nearly 50 p.c. of India's total and her coal resources are estimated at between 50,000 and 60,000 million tons.

The annual consumption of salt in India is estimated at 530 lakh maunds.

India is the main source of mica, ilmenite and manganese and is possessed of perhaps the world's largest resource of high-grade iron ore—3,600 million tons.

In iron ore India is the second largest producer in the British India and ninth in the world.

The total production of gold in India during ten years ended 1942 was 3,113,000 ounces or one per cent. of the total world output.

INDUSTRIES

India is one of the eight largest industrial countries of the world.

The greatest Hydro-Electric undertakings in India are the three schemes developed by Tata Sons Ltd.

Largest private industry in India is the cotton spinning & weaving which have its home in Bombay, with important subsidiary centres at Ahmedabad, Sholapur and Nagpur.

India has the largest monopoly in the lac industry of the world. The annual production of raw lac is between 40 to 50 thousand tons.

Cotton textile industry is the largest manufacturing industry in India.

Sugar has taken the third place among Indian Industries.

Over 85 p.c. of the raw cotton used by the Indian cotton textile industries is Indian grown.

Tata Iron & Steel Works at Jamshedpur are now the largest Steel Works in the British Empire.

India is the world's biggest producer and exporter of skins.

Judged by value of external trade, India to-day is surpassed by only five countries, the United Kingdom, Germany, France, U.S.A. and Canada.

India produces approximately 25,700,000 hides every year, valued at Rs. 6 crores.

Indian Railway system constitutes a great capital undertaking by the State. The capital at charge of the State-owned railway amounts to Rs. 755 crores.

In volume of trade India ranks fifth in the world.

The United Kingdom is the largest single customer for Indian exports, and supplies more than 50 p.c. of the total Indian imports.

Clay is India's biggest mineral industry; next biggest industry is coal.

PUBLIC HEALTH

Expectation of Life—Expectation of life calculated over the period 1920-30 for British India just under 27 years as against 65 in New Zealand, 63 in Australia, 59 in the U. S. A. and 63 in England and Germany, 47 in Japan.

Infant Mortality—The rate for this in 1937 was 31 in New Zealand, 38 in Australia, 54 in the U. S. A., 58 in England and Wales and no less than 162 in British India.

The level of health is low....The resistance to disease is low. Malnutrition and nutritional diseases are omnipotent—*Dr. J. B. Grant, Director of All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta.*

Malaria causes more deaths in India than any other single disease. The financial losses to the individual and the family alone have been calculated at no less than Rs. 11,000 lakhs annually or about 80 million sterling per annum.

Malaria is the largest public health problem in India. Deaths from this disease number about a million and a quarter every year; and the number of cases is about 1,000 millions per year.

There are only one doctor for every 9,000 persons in India against one for every 700 in Britain. In India 90 p.c. of the people live in villages but 90 p.c. of the doctors practise in towns.

It has been estimated by certain authorities, that 30 p.c. of the population in normal times do not get enough to eat—vide *Famine Commission's Report*, Vol. II, 1945.

THE CALENDAR

Indian Calendar

The *Samvat* era is popularly believed to have been established by Vikramaditya, the king of Ujjain to commemorate his victory over Saka kings in the year 57 B.C. Samvat is a luni-solar year.

The *Saka* era is said to date from the king Salivahana in commemoration of his victory over Sakas or Scythians, and dates from 78 A.D.

Bengali Year was originally a reckoning for agricultural and revenue purposes instituted at the time of Emperor Akbar. It began in April, 1556 which corresponds to the Bengali year 963.

In A.D. 1555-6 corresponding to Hijira 962-3, solar computation was introduced to Mahomedan era which became *Fasli* or harvest era of Northern India. It also dates from the reign of Akbar.

Mahomedan Calendar

The Mahomedan era is based on *Hijira* or flight of Mahomed from Mecca to Medina. The first day of the era is not the actual date of flight but 16th July, 622 A.D. *Hijira* is a purely lunar year consisting of 12 months of 30 and 29 days alternately making a total of 354 or 355 days.

Christian Calendar

The systematic division of year, as into months, weeks, days, etc. was first developed by the ancient Egyptians. This system was introduced into Roman Empire by Julius Cæsar in 46 B.C. and is therefore known as *Julian Calendar*. In 1582 A.D. Pope Gregory XIII made certain modifications in the Julian Calendar and it has been adopted widely and is known as *Gregorian Calendar*.

Buddhist Calendar

It is reckoned from the death of Buddha in 545 B.C. the actual date being 487 B.C.

Hindu Calendar

Hindus have employed luni-solar cycles made by the combination of solar years and lunar years so treated as to keep the beginning of the lunar year near that of the solar year. In some parts solar years are used while in other parts lunar year is followed :

The solar year is divided into 12 months in accordance with the successive *Sankrantis* or entrances of the Sun into the (sidereal) signs of zodiac. The names of the signs are as follows :—

Mesha, the ram (Aries).

Vrishabha, the bull (Taurus).

Mithuna, the pair (Gemini).

Karkata, the crab (Cancer).

Sinha, the lion (Leo).

Kanya, the maiden (Virgo).

Tula, the Scales (Libra).

Vrischika, the Scorpion (Scorpio).

Dhanus, the bow (Sagittarius).

Makara, the sea monster (Capricornus).

Kumbha, the water pot (Aquarius).

Mina, the fishes (Pisces).

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BRANCHES :

CALCUTTA :—Burrabazar, Howrah, Kalighat, Manicktalla.

BENGAL :—Barakar, Barisal, Dacca, Jalpaiguri, Krishnagar, Malda, Mymensingh, Nabadwip, Narayanganj, Narsingdi, Rajshahi, Serajganj, Bogra.

BIHAR :—Bhagalpur, Chaibasa, Deoghar, Dumka, Gaya, Hazaribagh, Katihar, Monghyr, Muzaffarpur, Patna, Ranchi, Sakchi (Jamshedpur), Sahibganj.

ASSAM :—Gauhati, Jorhat, Karimganj, Mangaldai, Silchar, Sylhet, Tezpur.

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But these are also known in some parts by another set of names preserving connection with lunar months—*Chaitra*, *Vaisakha*, *Jaistha*, *Ashadha*, *Shravana*, *Bhadra*, *Asvina*, *Kartika*, *Margasirsa* or *Agrahayana*, *Pausa*, *Magha* and *Phalguna*.

The astronomical solar month runs from the moment of one *Sankranti* of the sun to the moment of the next *Sankranti* and as the signs of the Hindu zodiac are all of equal length, 30 degrees, while the speed of the sun varies according to the time of the year, the length of the month is variable.

The days of solar month begin with sun-rise. The days are named as follows: *Ravibara*, the day of sun (Sunday); *Somvara*, the day of the moon (Monday); *Mangalvara*, the day of the Mars (Tuesday); *Budhvara*, the day of Mercury (Wednesday); *Brihaspativara*, the day of Jupiter (Thursday); *Sukravara*, the day of Venus (Friday); *Sanivara*, the day of Saturn (Saturday).

The lunar year consists of primary 12 lunar months. It is of two principal varieties according as it begins with a certain day in the month of Chaitra or with the corresponding day in Kartika. The present names of the lunar months were derived from *nakshatras*, which are certain conspicuous stars and group of stars lying more or less along the neighbourhood of the ecliptic. The *nakshatras* are grouped in 12 sets of two or three each.

Year

Unit of time marked by the revolution of the earth in its orbit round the sun. The *solar* year is 365 days 5 hours, 48 minutes 49.7 seconds. For practical purposes, the year may be taken at 365½ days. It is therefore fixed at 365 days with an extra day every fourth year (*Leap Year*).

Chronological Eras

Name	Began	Name	Began
	B.C.		B.C.
Grecian Mundane Era	5598, Sept.	Era of Metonic Cycle	432, July 15
Civil Era of Constantinople	5508, Sept.	Grecian or Syro-Macedonian Era	312, Sept. 1
Alexandrian Era	5502, Aug.	Era of Maccabees	166, Nov. 24
Julian Period	4713, Jan.	Tyrian Era	125, Oct. 19
Mundane Era	4008, Oct.	Sidonian Era	110, Oct. 1
Jewish Mundane Era	3761, Oct.	Julian Era	45, Jan. 1
Era of Abraham	2015, Oct.	Spanish Era	38, Jan. 1
Era of the Olympiads	776, July	Augustan Era	27, Feb. 14
Roman Era		Christian Era A.D.	1, Jan. 1
(A. U. C.)	753, April	Destruction of Jerusalem A.D.	69, Sept. 1
		Mohammedan Era A.D.	622, July 16

Name of Months

January was named from *Janus*, god of entrances; February is derived from *februa*, a festival of purification held in that month by the Romans. *Maritus* is the Mars, who was originally a god of agriculture, his month being the one when crops are ordinarily planned. The origin of April is not known. May is named from *Maria*, the mother of Roman god Mercury. June is derived from *Juna*, the goddess of women and of marriage. July was formerly called *quintilius* from *quintus*, the fifth, but when Julius Caesar reformed the calendar, he changed the month's name to *Julius* in his own honour; *Julius* became *July* in English. Similarly *Sextilius*, from *sextus* 'sixth' was named *Augustus* after the emperor of that name and became *August*. Those from September to December are so called from the numbers *Septem*, 'seven', *Octo*, 'eight', *Novem*, 'nine' and *Decem*, 'ten'.

Time

Time—It is based on the times taken by the earth to rotate on its axis (*day*); by moon to revolve round the earth (*month*); and by the earth to revolve round the sun (*year*); *Day* starts at midnight and is divided into 24 hours of 60 minutes, each of 60 seconds. The hours are counted from midnight upto 12 at noon and these hours are designated A.M. and again from noon upto 12 at midnight, which hours are designated P.M. The 24-hour reckoning ignores A.M. and P.M. and the hours are numbered 0 to 23 from midnight to midnight.

Standard Time

The time adopted by law or custom over a certain region is known as *Standard Time*. By law or general acceptance, the world is divided into belts or zones of 15° of longitude each. Between these time zones, there is a difference in time of one hour, and within each zone the time is uniform. The U.S. has four zones of standard time—*Eastern*, *Central*, *Mountain*, *Pacific*. In British Isles, the standard time is *Greenwich Time*.

Greenwich Meantime

The standard time of England is known as *Greenwich Mean Time*. It is the local time of Greenwich Observatory which is on longitude 0° .

Indian Standard Time

The Indian Standard time which is $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours ahead of Greenwich Mean Time was first started by the order of Lord Curzon. It came into operation from the midnight of 31st December throughout India except Calcutta. Calcutta time which was 24 minutes in advance of the Indian Standard time, has been discontinued and in its place there is *Bengal time* which is one hour in advance of Indian Standard time and $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours ahead of G.M.T.

The war-time Indian Standard time was operating from 1st September, 1942 was $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours ahead of Greenwich Mean Time, was discontinued from 15th October, 1945 and it has again reverted to Indian Standard Time which is $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours ahead of G.M.T.



ANTHROPOLOGICAL INFORMATION

Races of Mankind

The human family has been divided into five races—*Caucasian*, *Mongolian*, *Negro*, *Malay*, *American*.

The Caucasian or Indo-European Race (White) comprises the natives of Europe, the Persians, Jews, Arabians, Hindus, Afghans, and the people of Northern Africa; also the descendants of Europeans in America, South Africa, Australia, etc.

The Mongolian Race (Yellow) consists of the Chinese, Japanese, Siamese, Burmese, Tibetans and Koreans. Also the Laplanders, Finns, Magyars (Hungary), Tartars, Turks and many Russians.

The Negro Race (Black) is composed of the natives of Africa south of the Sahara.

The Malay (Brown) includes the natives of Australia, Tasmania and some of the Malayan Islands. Sometimes they come under the category of the Mongolian race.

American Indians (Red)—are the original inhabitants of America.

The main divisions are based on the colour of the skin, but colour alone is not an entirely reliable guide. So *texture of the hair* provides a surer test of race. The hair of the *Caucasian* is oval in cross-section and is wavy. That of the *Mongolian* is round in cross-section and is long and straight, hanging loose like a piece of string. The Negroes have woolly hair arranged in small interlocked spirals.

Another division associated with the different races is physical characteristics. Mongolian people, such as the Japanese and the Chinese, have broad flat faces with high cheek-bones, almond-shaped eyes and are of rather short stature. The Negroes as a rule are tall. They have thick lips and broad, flat noses.

More recently, however, anthropologists have attempted to base distinction of race on differences in the size and proportions of skulls and on other physical differences found to follow these, such as the shape of the cross-section of the hair and composition of blood. These attempts have resulted in a division into the dolichocephalic (long-skulled) and the brachycephalic (short-skulled) races.

Stages of Civilisation of Man

Stone Age—Age of human development in which primitive man was using stone implements and weapons. The Stone Age preceded the ages of bronze and iron. It is usually divided into four periods—(1) *Aolithic* or

dawn of the stone age which lasted 6,00,000 years; (2) *Paleolithic*, or old stone age lasting perhaps 400,000 to 100,000 B.C. in which weapons and sharp stone tools were made from hard stone (flint) by chipping; (3) *Mesolithic*, a traditional period intermediate between the old and new stone ages, lasting perhaps until 10,000 B.C. when arrow and spear-heads were made and (4) the *Neolithic* or New stone age in which tools were perfected by grinding and polishing the stone. The new stone age lasted in Europe for some 5,000 years. In different parts of the world, the stone age existed at different times. Fire was probably discovered some 60,000 years before Christ.

Bronze Age—The period when early man used bronze for his tools and weapons, this superseding the use of stone. Its date differs in various areas. In the East it began probably about 5,000 B.C. and in the West perhaps 2,000 B.C. and continued until about 1,000 B.C.

Iron Age—The cultural phase of human civilisation marked by the use of iron, specially for edged tools and weapons. In Europe and West Asia it usually followed the copper-using or bronze-using phase or age; in Africa it directly succeeded the stone age. In Europe, iron working became general in the Mediterranean region about 1,000 B.C., subsequently two pre-Christian periods occurred, each of about 500 years.

Pre-historic Races

Pithecanthropus erectus (erect ape-man or Java man)—This is generally believed to be the earliest manlike animal. Held to be a creature of pleistocene times about mid-way between the orangutan and man. (1891-1892).

Sinanthropus pekinensis (Peking man)—Of higher development than Java man, but of approximately same period. Fossilized remains of 10 individuals were found in a cave about 40 miles from Peking between 1926 and 1930. The brain capacity is estimated to be about one-fourth larger than that of Java man.

Australopithecus Africans (erect man-ape)—A skull was found in Cape Colony in 1925.

Homo Heidelbergensis (Heidelberg man)—Primitive man of pleistocene period discovered in Heidelberg, Germany (1907). The jaw-bone is manlike, although it bears no trace of a chin. The teeth which are remarkably well-preserved, are unmistakably of human type.

Piltdown skull (Eoanthropus or primitive man)—Primitive man of early palaeolithic times found in Piltdown, Sussex (1912).

Neanderthal Man—Oldest known dolichocephalic (long-headed) race in Europe, living about 50,000 years before Christian era. Human remains were first discovered in 1857 near Dusseldorf, Germany, in Neanderthal, after which this type of human beings has been named.

Homo primigenius—Of late palaeolithic times from 35,000 to 15,000 B.C. (1895, 1906).

Note—Figures in parentheses denote years in which discoveries were made.

GEOGRAPHICAL AND ASTRONOMICAL INFORMATION

SOLAR SYSTEM

Solar System consists of a group of planetary bodies which move round the sun. The *Sun* is the dominant member of the Solar System. Its mass is 1000 times the combined masses of all other bodies in the system. The sun's distance from the earth is 92,900,000 miles. The following are the planets that revolve the Sun—*Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune, Pluto*. Besides these, there are large number of small bodies called minor planets or *asteroids*.

Planets.

Elements of Solar System

	Maximum distances from Sun in miles	Period of revolution in days	Diameter in miles	Density (Earth=1)
Sun	—	—	864,392	0.26
Mercury	43,355,000	87.97	3,008	0.70
Venus	67,653,000	224.70	7,576	0.88
Earth	94,452,000	365.26	7,918	1.00
Mars	154,760,000	686.98	4,216	0.72
Jupiter	506,710,000	4,332.59	86,682	0.24
Saturn	935,570,000	10,759.20	72,332	0.13
Uranus	1,866,800,000	30,685.93	30,878	0.23
Neptune	2,817,400,000	60,187.64	32,932	0.29
Pluto	Average	90,470.23	3,750	0.29

Earth.—The circumference of the Earth is 24,902 miles or approximately 25,000 miles. Though the Earth appears to us stationary, it is in fact spinning round on its axis. The Earth rotates on its axis once in every 24 hours and it spins from west to east. Besides spinning on its axis, the Earth moves round the Sun. The path of the Earth round the Sun called its orbit is not a circle but an oval or ellipse and the plane in which the Earth moves is said to be Plane of the Ecliptic. The time taken to complete one revolution round the sun is one year i.e., 365 $\frac{1}{4}$ days approximately. The seasons are due to the changes of the Earth's position in the course of its revolution about the Sun and to the inclination of its axis.

Moon is the only satellite of the earth, from which her mean distance is 238,857 miles, occupies an average period, in her revolution round the earth of 29 days, 12 hours, 44 minutes, 5 seconds; her diameter is 2,160 miles and her mean density 0.60. The moon shines entirely by reflected light.

Comets

Comets are luminous celestial bodies moving about the sun in elongated orbits and consists of a head and usually of a tail and a nucleus. The head is spherical in shape.

Constellations

A glance at the sky on a clear night shows that the stars are not uniformly scattered over its surface, but in many cases, are arranged in natural groups. These natural groups early observed and variously named by the ancients, became as constellations.

Satellites

The secondary bodies which revolve around the planets, as the planets revolve around the sun, are called satellites. With the exception of Mercury and Venus, all of the planets are accompanied by one or more satellites. Earth has one satellite, moon; Mars has, two; Jupiter nine; Saturn, ten; Uranus, four; and Neptune, one.

Milky Way

Milky Way is a hazy, somewhat irregular band of light, about 20" wide which completely encircles the heavens. It can be seen on clear, moonless, summer evenings stretching entirely across the northern sky.

Asteroids

Are also called minor planets. They are of small bodies which revolve round the sun in orbits lying between those of Mars and Jupiter. About 2,000 have already been recorded. The largest is Ceres, 485 miles in diameter. They are probably the fragments of a large disrupted planet.

Meteorites

Meteorites are solid masses weighing from a few pounds to many tons which plunge down upon the earth from regions beyond its atmosphere.

Meteors

Meteors are small pieces of solid matter which appear in the earth's atmosphere as 'shooting stars.' Their constituents are nickel, chromium, magnesium and iron.

OCEANS AND SEAS

	Area in Sq. miles	Greatest depth ft.		Area in Sq. miles	Greatest depth ft.
Pacific	63,801,000	35,400	Sea of Okhotsk	590,000	10,554
Atlantic	31,830,000	30,246	East China Sea	482,000	10,500
Indian	28,356,000	22,968	Hudson Bay	475,000	1,500
Arctic	5,440,000	17,850	Japan Sea	389,000	10,200
Mediterranean			North Sea	222,000	1,998
Sea	1,145,000	14,450	Black Sea	165,000	7,200
Bering Sea	876,000	13,422	Red Sea	169,000	7,254
Caribbean Sea	750,000	23,748	Baltic Sea	163,000	1,200

DIMENSIONS OF THE EARTH

	<i>Sq. miles.</i>	Mean Distance from	
Superficial area	196,950,000	Sun (miles)	92,897,416
	<i>miles.</i>		<i>Sq. miles</i>
Equatorial Circumference	24,902	Land Surface	57,510,000
Meridional. „	24,860	North America	8,500,000
Polar „	24,859.76	South America	6,814,000
Equatorial Diameter	7,926.677	Europe	3,872,000
Polar „	7,899.988	Asia	16,990,000
Equatorial Radius	3,963.34	Africa	11,500,000
Polar Radius	3,949.99	Australia	2,974,581
Mass of Weight	<i>Tons</i>	Water Surface	139,400,000
6,592,000,000,000,000,000,000		Atlantic Ocean	31,830,000
		Pacific Ocean	63,801,000
Volume of Earth	260,000,000,000	Indian Ocean	28,356,000
(Cubic miles).		Arctic Ocean	5,440,000

LONGEST RIVERS

	<i>Miles long</i>		<i>Miles long</i>
Missouri-Mississippi (U.S.A.)	4,502	Amur (Asia)	3,000
Amazon (S.A.)	4,194	Mekong (Asia)	2,800
Nile (Africa)	4,000	Niger (Africa)	2,600
Yangtse (Asia)	3,400	Hoang-Ho (Asia)	2,600
Yenesei (Asia)	3,300	Mackenzie (Canada)	2,514
Congo (Africa)	3,000	Volga (Europe)	2,450
Lena (Asia)	2,800	Yokon	2,000
Obe (Asia)	2,700		

PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS

	<i>ft.</i>		<i>ft.</i>
Everest (Nepal-Tibet)	29,002	McKinley (America)	19,500
Godwin-Austin (India)	28,250	Mt. Elias (America)	19,500
Kanchanjanga (Nepal-India)	28,146	Cotopaxi (Equador)	19,580
Makalu (Nepal-Tibet)	27,790	Kilimanjaro (Africa)	19,321
Dhaulagiri (Nepal)	26,795	Elburz (Europe)	18,526
Nanga Parvat (India)	26,620	Demavend (Iran)	18,464
Nanda Devi (India)	25,645	Papocatepetl (Mexico)	17,540
Mt. Kamet (India)	25,446	Kenya (Africa)	17,040
Aconcagua (America)	23,080	Mount Blanc (Europe)	15,782
Chimborazo (America)	20,610		

LAKES & INLAND SEAS

	<i>Sq. Miles</i>		<i>Sq. Miles</i>
Caspean Sea	170,000	Baikal (S. Siberia)	13,200
Superior (U.S.-Canada)	31,820	Tanganyika (Cen. Africa)	12,700
Victoria (E. Africa)	26,000	Great Bear Lake (Canada)	11,660
Aral (Asiatic Russia)	26,233	Great Slave Lake (Canada)	11,170
Huron (U.S.-Canada)	23,010	Lake Nayasa (S.E. Africa)	11,000
Michigan (U.S.A.)	22,400	Chad (N. Cen. Africa)	10,000

VOLCANOES

	<i>ft.</i>		<i>ft.</i>
Cotapaxi, Equador	19,580	Etna, Sicily	10,740
San Peleroy Pablo, Bolivia	19,423	Iliamna, Aleutian Isles	11,000
Sangay, Equador	17,464	Hualalai, Hawaii	8,275
Llullailaco, Chile	17,000	Skeidar-Jokull, Iceland	6,952
Erebus, Antarctic	13,300	Hekla, Iceland	5,110
Mouna Loa, Hawaii	12,675	Vesuvius, Italy	4,700
Fuji, Japan	12,044	Stromboli, Lipari Isles	3,022

PRINCIPAL ISLANDS

	<i>Sq. miles</i>		<i>Sq. miles</i>
Greenland, Arctic	846,740	Victoria	80,450
New Guinea, Pacific	330,000	Java, Indian	48,400
Borneo, Pacific	284,630	Cuba, Atlantic	42,734
Baffinland Arctic	236,000	Newfoundland, Atlantic	41,634
Madagascar, Indian	224,721	Luson (U.S.A.), Pacific	40,814
Sumatra, Indian	163,534	Iceland, Atlantic	39,709
New Zealand (N. & S.)	103,934	Mindanao	36,906
Great Britain, Atlantic	88,745	Ireland, Atlantic	32,600
Honshu (Japan), Pacific	87,500	Ceylon, Indian	25,400
Celebes, Indian	72,679		

PRINCIPAL DESERTS

	<i>Sq. miles</i>		<i>Sq. miles</i>
Gobi (Asia)	300,000	Sahara (Africa)	2,000,000
Great American	1,050,000	Tibet (Asia)	230,000
		Tarim (Asia)	150,000

GEOGRAPHICAL SURNAMES

<i>Isles of Pearls</i> —Baherein (Persian Gulf).	<i>China's Sorrow</i> —Hoang Ho.
<i>World's lonliest island</i> —Tristan De Cunna (Mid-Atlantic).	<i>Gate of Tears</i> —Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb.
<i>Roof of the World</i> —Pamir Plateau.	<i>Pearl of the Antilles</i> —Cuba.
<i>Eternal City</i> —Rome.	<i>The Corridor</i> —A strip of land in Poland separating Germany from East Prussia.
<i>Gift of the Nile</i> —Egypt.	<i>Cockpit of Europe</i> —Belgium.
<i>Land of the Midnight Sun</i> —Norway.	<i>Granite City</i> —Aberdeen.
<i>Holy Land</i> —Palestine.	<i>Land of Morning Calm</i> —Korea.
<i>Hermit Kingdom</i> —Korea.	<i>Playground of Europe</i> —Switzerland.
<i>Island of Cloves</i> —Zanzibar.	<i>City of Seven Hills</i> —Rome.
<i>Land of White Elephant</i> —Siam.	<i>Land of Rising Sun</i> —Japan.
<i>Empire City</i> —New York.	<i>Dark Continent</i> —Africa.
<i>Pillars of Hercules</i> —Strait of Gibraltar.	<i>Emerald Isle</i> —Ireland.
<i>Key of the Mediterranean</i> —Gibraltar.	<i>Land of Maple</i> —Canada.
<i>Rose-pink City</i> —Jaipur.	<i>Land of Five Rivers</i> —The Punjab.

Blue Mountains—Nilgiri Hills.
Venice of the North—Stockholm.
Forbidden City—Lhasa.

Gateway of India—Bombay.
Second City of the British Empire
 —Calcutta.

LARGEST TUNNELS

	<i>miles</i>		<i>miles</i>
Ben Nevis	15	Loetschbeg	9½
Tanna (Japan)	13½	St. Gothard	9½
Simplon	12½	Mont Cenis	7½
Appennines	11½		

CHANGED GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

<i>Old</i>		<i>New</i>		<i>Old</i>	<i>New</i>
Pekin	Peping.	Petrograd,			
Christiana		St. Petersburg }	Leningrad.		
(Norway)	Oslo.	Nijni Novgorod }	Gorkey.		
Constantinople	Istanbul.	Manchuria	Manchukuo.		
Helsingfors	Helsinki.	Persia	Iran.		
Reval	Tallium	Tripoli	Libya.		
	(Estonia).	Korea	Chosen.		
Queenstown		Irish Free State	Eire.		
(Ireland)	Cobh.	Siam	Thailand.		
Mesopotamia	State of Irak.	Salonika	Thessaloniki.		
Russia	Union of Soviet	Finland	Suomi.		
	Socialist	Re-Viipuri	Viborg		
	publics (U.		(Finland).		
	S. S. R.).				
Formosa	Taiwan.				

SHIP CANALS

	<i>Length</i> <i>miles</i>	<i>Depth</i>		<i>Length</i> <i>miles</i>	<i>Depth</i> <i>feet</i>
Suez (Egypt)	104.5	39.5	Cronstadt-Leningrad		
Kiel (Germany)	61	45	(U.S.S.R.)	16	28
Houston (U.S.A.)	57	34	Cape Cod (U.S.A.)	13	25
Gotta (Sweden)	54	10	Lake Washington		
Trollhatte (Sweden)	52	18	(U.S.A.)	8	30
Panama (U.S.A.)	50.72	45	Burges (Belgium)	6.3	28
Elve Trave (Ger.)	41	10	Corinth (Greece)	4	26.25
Manchester (Eng.)	35.5	26	Sault Ste. Marie		
Welland (Canada)	27.6	30	(U.S.A.)	1.6	22
Roupel (Belgium)	20	21	Sault Ste. Marie		
Amsterdam (Nether-			(Canada)	1.11	20.25
lands)	16.5	40			

GEOGRAPHICAL RECORD-BREAKERS

<i>Highest Mountain System</i>	Himalayas.
<i>Highest Plateau</i>	Tibet.
<i>Longest River</i>	Mississippi-Missouri, 4,060 miles long.
<i>Largest River Basin</i>	Basin of Amazon, 2,702,800 sq. miles.

<i>Largest Fresh Water Lake</i>	Caspian Sea.
<i>Largest Salt Water Lake</i>	Superior, 31,820 sq. miles.
<i>Largest Island</i>	Greenland, 846,740 sq. miles.
<i>Densest Population</i>	Java (817 to the sq. mile).
<i>Hottest Regions</i>	North-west Sahara, Azizia (Tripolitania), Death Valley (California), and Thar Desert of North-West India.
<i>Coldest Region</i>	Verkoyansk in North-East Siberia where temperatures of 90° below zero have been recorded.
<i>Longest Mountain System</i>	Andes in S. America (4,500 miles).
<i>Largest Continent</i>	Asia.
<i>Largest Peninsula</i>	India.
<i>Highest Country</i>	Tibet.
<i>Biggest Ocean</i>	Pacific Ocean.
<i>Most Northernly Town</i>	Hemmerfest in Norway 275 miles north of Arctic circle.
<i>Largest Inland Sea</i>	Mediterranean Sea.
<i>Largest Desert</i>	Sahara (Africa).
<i>Largest City</i>	London (Population 8,204,000).
<i>Highest Peak</i>	Mt. Everest (29,002 ft.).
<i>Largest Population</i>	China.
<i>Rainiest Place</i>	Cherrapunji (Assam).
<i>Largest Volcano</i>	Mauna Loa (crater 12,400 ft.).
<i>Smallest Continent</i>	Australia.
<i>Greatest Ocean Depth</i>	Near Meandanao (Pacific).
<i>Deepest Lake</i>	Lake Baikal (Siberia).
<i>Highest Active Volcano</i>	Cotapaxi (Andes, 19,580 ft.).
<i>Highest Lake</i>	Lake Titicaca (Bolivia, 12,000 ft. above sea).
<i>Saltiest Sea</i>	Dead Sea.
<i>Largest Artificial Lake</i>	Lake Mead at Boulder Dam (U.S.A.).
<i>Highest City</i>	Phari, Tibet, altitude 14,300 ft.
<i>Largest Coral formation</i>	The Great Barrier Reef along North-Eastern Coast of Australia.
<i>Lowest body of water</i>	Dead Sea.

COLDEST, DRYEST, HOTTEST & WETTEST

Coldest Place—

Verkoyansk (Siberian village)—
90 degrees below zero.
Oimekon (Siberian village)—94
degrees below zero.

Dryest Place—

Death Valley (California)—Rain-
fall 1½ inches yearly.
Arica Village (Chile)—Average
rainfall 1/5 in. yearly.

Hottest Place—

In-Salah (Algeria)—133 degrees.

Death Valley (California)—

134 deg.

Azizla (Tripolitania)—136 deg.

* Average of 50 years.

Wettest Place—

*Cherapunji, Assam—428 inches yearly.

†Manoyouram, Assam—499 inches yearly.

† Average of 5 years.

WATERFALLS

<i>Name and location.</i>	<i>Height. ft.</i>	<i>Name and location.</i>	<i>Height ft.</i>
Bridal Veil (America)	620	Rjukan (Norway)	780
Fairy (Do.)	700	Ribbon (California)	1,612
Gersoppa (Mysore)	960	Skiaeggedalsfos (Norway)	530
Gavarnie (France)	1,385	Staubbach (Switzerland)	890
Kaictur (Br. Guiana)	520	Takkakaw (Canada)	1,200
Kalambo (E. Africa)	705	Stirling (New Zealand)	505
King Edward VIII (Br. Guiana)	400	Tugela (Natal)	1,800
Southerland (N. Zealand)	1,904	Yosemite (upper) Cal.	1,630
Multnomah (Oregon)	850	Vettish (Norway)	650

(In volume)

	<i>yds.</i>		<i>yds.</i>
Khom Cataracts (French Indo-China)	14,000	Niagra (Canada, U.S.A.)	1,300
Guayra (Brazil)	5,280	Victoria (N. Rhodesia)	1,500

FIRST IN INDIA*Largest River—Indus.**Largest Lake—Wular Lake, Kashmir.**Highest Peak in British India—Nanda Devi (25,645 ft.).**Largest Populated Province—Bengal.**Largest City—Calcutta.**Highest Waterfall—Gersoppa Waterfalls Mysore (960 ft. high).**Most Famous Pass—Khyber Pass.**Largest Province—Madras Province.**Largest Military Cantonment—Rawalpindi.**Largest Indian State—Jammu & Kashmir.**Wettest Place—Cherrapunji.**Densest Population—Bengal (712 per sq. mile).**Largest Populated District—Vizagapatam.**Leading Forest Province—Assam.**Hottest Place—Jacobabad (Sind).**Largest Delta—Sundarbans Delta (8,000 sq. miles).**Highest Summit climbed by man—Nanda Devi (Himalaya, 25,645 ft.).**Largest Cantilever Span Bridge—Howrah Bridge.**Largest Irrigated Province of India—Punjab.**Largest Cave Temples—Ellora, Hyderabad.**Longest Corridor—Rameswaram Temple Corridor (4,000 ft. long).**Largest Railway—North Western Railway.*

Largest Dam—Lloyd Dam.

Longest Bridge—Sone Bridge.

Largest Gate—Buland Darwaja (Fatehpur Sikri).

Tallest Statue—Statue of Gomateswara (Mysore) 56 ft. high.

Longest Platform—Sonepur Platform (O. T. R.).

Longest Road—Grand Trunk Road, (1,500 miles).

Highest Tower—Kutub Minar.

Largest Dome—Gol Gambuz, Bijapur.

Largest Fair of Animals—Sonepur fair.

GENERAL INFORMATION

LONGEST RAILWAY STATION PLATFORMS

	<i>feet</i>		<i>feet</i>
Sonepur (O. T. R., India)	2,415	Mandalay (Burma Railways)	1,788
Kharagpur (B. N. R., India)	2,350	Bournemouth (England)	1,748
Bulawayo (Rhodesia)	2,302	Perth (Joint)	1,714
New Lucknow (E.I.R., India)	2,250	York (L. N. E. R.)	1,701
Manchester Victoria Exchange		Edinburgh	1,680
(L. M. S.)	2,194	Aberdeen	1,596
Bezwada (M. S. M., India)	2,100	Trichinopoly (S. I. R.)	1,546
Jhansi (G. I. P., India)	2,024	Ranaghat (B. A. R.)	1,509
Kotri (N. W. R., India)	1,896	Dakor (B. B. C. I.)	1,470

INDIAN BRIDGES

	<i>feet</i>		<i>feet</i>
Sone Bridge (1900)	10,052	Hardinge Bridge (<i>girder</i>)	5,380
Godavari Bridge	9,096	Mahanadi Bridge	6,912
Willingdon Bridge	2,610	Jubilee Bridge	1,213
Gorai Bridge	1,744	Meghna Bridge	
*Howrah Bridge (1943)	2,150		

FAMOUS BRIDGES

Sydney Harbour Bridge (Australia)	The great arch itself spans 1,650 ft. <i>Biggest single-span arch bridge in the world</i>	3,770
Bulawayo Bridge (Rhodesia, S. Africa)		1,080
Storstrom Bridge (opened 1937), Denmark—over 2 miles.		
(<i>Longest in Europe, Railway and Highway Bridge</i>)		10,286
George Washington (U. S. A.)		8,243
Golden Gate (U. S. A.)		8,940

LONGEST RAILWAY BRIDGES

Lower Zambezi Bridge (<i>East Africa</i>)	12,064	Godavari (<i>India</i>)	9,096
Tay Bridge (<i>Scotland</i>)	10,527	Forth (<i>Scotland</i>)	8,300
Sone Bridge (<i>India</i>)	10,052	Mahanadi (<i>India</i>)	6,912
		Rao Saldo (<i>Argentina</i>)	6,703

* Largest Cantilever Span Bridge in India and the third largest Cantilever Bridge in the world.

NOTABLE TELESCOPES

Astronomical telescopes are of two kinds—*refracting and reflecting*. In the first, the light falls upon a lens which converges the rays to a focus, where image may be magnified by a second lens, called eye-piece or may be directly photographed. *The Reflector* consists of a concave mirror, generally of glass coated with silver or aluminium which throws the rays back towards the upper end of the telescope, where they, fall on the eye-piece or on the photographic plate as in the case of the refractor.

<i>Refractor</i>		<i>Reflector</i>	
40-inch	Univ. of Chicago (Yerkes Observatory) 62 ft. long.	74-inch	David Dunlop Observatory (Univ. of Toronto at Richmond Hill).
36-inch	Univ. of California (Lick Observatory) 32½-inch long.	72-inch	Dominion Astrophysical, Victoria B.C.
32½-inch	Mendon Observatory, France.	69-inch	Ohio Wesleyan Univ., Delaware.
31½-inch	Astrophysical Observatory, Potsdam, Germany.	100-inch	Carnegie Inst. Mt. Wilson, California.
30-inch	Observatory at Pulkova, Russia.	61-inch	Oak Ridge Station, Harvard.
30-inch	Univ. of Paris (at Nice).	60-inch	Harvard University.
28-inch	Royal Observatory, Greenwich, England.	82-inch	On Mount Locke, Texas, U.S.A.
		*200-inch	California Inst. of Technology at Pasadena, Calif.
		74-inch	Radcliffe Observatory at Pretoria, S. Africa.

* *Largest telescope in the world.*

BIGGEST SHIPS

	<i>Gross tonnage</i>	<i>Length ft.</i>	<i>Breadth ft.</i>	<i>Built</i>
Queen Elizabeth ..	85,000	1,031	118	1939
Normande ..	83,423	962	117	1933
Bretagne ..	82,799	975	118	1936
Queen Mary ..	81,235	879	97	1932
Rex ..	50,000	890	102	1928
Europa ..	51,000	814	96	1932
Conte di Savoia ..	48,600	868	97	1914
Aquitania ..	45,647	763	92	1926
Ile de France ..	43,153	739	89	1938
Empress of Britain ..	42,500	705	82	1928
Mauretania ..	34,000	710	82	1927
Roma ..	32,582			
Augustus ..	32,650			

LARGEST BELLS

<i>Approximate weight in tons</i>	
*Great Bell at Moscow (World's largest) ..	200
Great Bell at Mingoon, Burma ..	125
Another Moscow Bell ..	125
Great Bell at Peking ..	55
Bell at Cologne Cathedral ..	26
St. Issac's Cathedral, Leningrad ..	22
Novgorod, Russia ..	31
Oulmutz, Austria ..	18
Vienna ..	18

<i>Approximate weight in tons</i>	
Notre Dame, Paris ..	18
St. Paul's, London ...	17
Seus, France ..	13
Erfuz Cathedral, Prussian Saxony ..	13
Montreal (R. C. Cathedral)	13
York ..	12
Big Ben, Westminster ..	11
Gorlitze, Silesia ..	10
Brugs ..	10
"Great Tomb", Oxford ..	17

HIGH BUILDINGS AND TOWERS

<i>Feet</i>	
Soviet Palace (Moscow)	1,300
Empire State (N.Y.) ..	1,248
Chrysler (N.Y.) ..	1,046
Eiffel Tower (Paris) ..	984
Bank of the Manhattan (N.Y.) ..	925
R. C. A. Rockefeller Centre	850
Woolworth (N.Y.) ..	792
Farmer's Trust, (N.Y.) ..	767
Terminal Tower (U.S.A.)	708
Metropolitan Building (N.Y.) ..	700

<i>Feet</i>	
Chanin Tower (U.S.A.) ..	680
Lincoln Building (U.S.A.)	638
Waldorf-Astoria (N.Y.)	626
Ulm Cathedral (Germany)	529
Cologne Cathedral (Ger.) ..	512
Rouen Cathedral (France)	485
Straussburg Cathedral (Ger.)	468
Pyramid of Cheops (Egypt) ..	450
St. Peter's (Rome) ..	448
St. Stephen's Cathedral (Vienna) ..	441

GREAT DAMS

	<i>Highest (feet)</i>	<i>Mill. gal</i>	<i>Cost (dollars)</i>
Sennar (Sudan) 1926; irrigation ..	128	140,000	43,000,000
Assuan (Egypt); irrigation ..	144	1,322,955	29,000,000
Krishnarajasagar (India); irrigation	124	45,000	13,000,000
Cauvery-Mettur (India); irrigation and power (1934) ..	214	5,978,750	16,000,000
Lloyd Barrage (India); irrigation (1928-32) ..	190	73,730,000
*Dneiper River (Russia) power, etc. (1932) ..	200	290,800	1,10,000,00
Boulder (U.S.A.); irrigation, etc., (1936) ..	726	10,000,000	77,843,000
Grand Coulee (U.S.A.); irrigation and power (1941) ..	533	3,131,000	1,18,000,000

* Destroyed by the Russians in August, 1941 due to war.

BIGGEST, LARGEST, GREATEST, LONGEST

Highest Mountain	..	Mount Everest (29,002 ft.).
Largest Library	..	National Library (U.S.S.R.).
Greatest Desert	..	Sahara (Africa).
Tallest Building	..	Soviet Palace (Russia) 1,300 ft.
Largest Palace	..	Vatican (Rome).
Biggest Ship	..	Queen Elizabeth (85,000 tons).
Biggest City	..	London (8,787,143 people).
Largest Diamond Mine	..	Kimberly, South Africa.
Tallest Statue	..	Statute of Liberty (N. Y.) 151 ft. high.
Tallest Church	..	Ulm Cathedral (Germany, 529 ft. high).
Largest Church	..	Church of St. Peters (Rome).
Largest Diamond	..	The Cullinan.
Rainiest Place	..	Cherrapunji (Assam).
Biggest & Deepest Ocean	..	Pacific Ocean.
Longest Corridor	..	Rameswaram Temple Corridor, S. India. About 4,000 ft. long.
Longest Rly. Platform	..	Sonepur Station (Bihar).
Largest Pearl	..	Beresford-Hope - Pearl, weighing 1800 grams.
Longest Railway run	..	Riga to Vladivostock (6,000 miles).
Largest Telescope	..	At Pasadena, California, diameter of reflector is 200 inches.
Biggest Museum	..	British Museum (London).
Longest River	..	Mississippi-Mussorie.
Largest River (in vol.)	..	Amazon.
Largest Railway Station	..	Grand Central Terminal (New York) with 47 platforms.
Largest Dome	..	Gol Gumbaz (Bijapur) 144 ft. in actual diameter.
Largest Building	..	The great Pyramid at Gizeh, Egypt.
Largest Dry Dock	..	Dry dock at Southampton (England). The huge structure is 1,200 ft. long, 135 ft. wide at the entrance.
Tallest Tower	..	Eiffel Tower, Paris, 984 ft. high.
Largest group of Islands	..	Malaya Archipelago.
Largest Delta	..	Sundarban Delta, comprising 8,000 sq. m.
Largest Royal Palace	..	The Palace at Madrid.
Largest Single Country	..	Brazil with an area of 3,285,319 sq. miles.
Largest Lake	..	Lake Superior.
Largest Freshwater Lake	..	Caspian Sea, 760 miles long.
Largest Volcano	..	Mauna Loa (Hawaii, 13,760 ft.) crater 12,400 ft. in diameter.
Largest & populous continent	..	Asia.

Longest Wall	The Great Wall of China over 1,500 miles long and was built in 214 B.C.
Longest Canal	Stalin's White Sea-Baltic Canal.
Longest Tunnel	Simplon (Switzerland) 12 miles 458 yds. long.
Highest Dam	Boulder Dam (U. S. A.) 726 ft. above bed-rock.
Largest Dam	Lloyd Dam (Sukkur).
Largest Peninsula	India.
Largest Island	Greenland (827,300 sq. miles).
Densest Population	Java (over 800 per sq. mile).
Largest Bell	Bell of Moscow, cast in 1733, 21 ft. high. 21 ft. diameter and weighs 200 tons.
Largest Planetary Body	Jupiter.
Biggest Railway	Trans-Siberian Railway.
Biggest Park	Yellowstone National Park (U. S. A.) 3,350 sq. miles.
Largest Archway	Sydney Harbour Bridge (Australia).
Largest Single State	U. S. S. R. (Russia).
Largest Bridge	San Francisco-Oakland Bridge.

EARTHQUAKES & VOLCANIC ERUPTIONS

	<i>Date</i>		<i>Date</i>
Pompeii	.. 79	Japan	.. 1923
Krakatoa	.. 1883	Napier, N. Z.	.. 1932
Martinique	.. 1902	California (Long Beach)	.. 1933
San Francisco	.. 1906	Quetta (India)	.. 1935
Messinna	.. 1908	Chile	.. 1939
N. & C. Italy	.. 1920	Turkey (Anatolia)	.. 1939

POLAR RECORD

Arctic

<i>Year</i>	<i>Explorer</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Latitude</i>
1854	.. E. K. Kane (U. S. A.)	.. 78	45
1871	.. Capt. Hall (U. S. A.)	.. 82	11
1875	.. Capt. Nares (G. B.)	.. 83	20
1879	.. Lieut. De Long	.. 77	15
1882	.. Lieut. Greely (U. S. A.)	.. 83	24
1892	.. Lieut. Peary (U. S. A.)	.. 83	27
1895	.. Fridtjof Nansen (Norway)	.. 86	14
1900	.. Duke d'Abruzzi (Italy)	.. 86	34
1902	.. Lieut. Peary (U. S. A.)	.. 84	17
1904	.. Ziegler Polar Expedition (U. S. A.)	.. 82	4

<i>Year</i>	<i>Explorer</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Latitude</i>
1906 ..	Commander Peary (U. S. A.) ..	87	6
1909 ..	Commander Peary (U. S. A.) ..	90 (Pole)	
1925 ..	Amundsen (Norway) ..	87	44
1926 ..	Commander Byrd* (U. S. A.) ..	90 (Pole)	
1926 ..	Amundsen-Ellsworth-Nobile† (Norway, U. S. A. and Italy)	90 (Pole)	
1928 ..	Gen. U. Nobile† (Italy) ..	90 (Pole)	
1937 ..	Pavel Golovin* (Soviet Russia) ..	90 (Pole)	
1937 ..	Prof. Otto J. Schmidt and four others* (Soviet Russia)	90 (Pole)	

* airplane.

† By airship.

Antarctic

		<i>No.</i>	<i>Latitude</i>
1774 ..	Capt. Cook (G. B.) ..	71	10
1823 ..	Capt. Weddell (G. B.) ..	74	15
1842 ..	Capt. Ross (G. B.) ..	78	10
1900 ..	Borghgrevink (G. B.) ..	78	50
1902 ..	Capt. Robert F. Scott (G. B.) ..	82	17
1909 ..	Lieut. Shackleton (G. B.) ..	88	23
1911 ..	Roland Amundsen (Norway) ..	90 (Pole)	
1912 ..	Capt. Robert F. Scott (G. B.) ..	90 (Pole)	
1929 ..	Admiral Richard Byrd* (U. S. A.) ..	90 (Pole)	
1935 ..	L. Ellsworth* (U. S. A.) ..	76-79	58

* By airplane.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES & FIRST ISSUES

<i>Inventor</i>	<i>Invention</i>	<i>Date</i>
Chinese inventor ..	Printing ..	593
Watt (England) ..	Steam Engine ..	1765
Fulton (America) ..	First Practical Steamer ..	1807
Colt (do.) ..	Revolver ..	1837
Morse (do.) ..	Electric Telegraph ..	1835
Bell (do.) ..	Telephone ..	1876
Edison (do.) ..	Phonograph ..	1876
Edison (do.) ..	Incandescent Lamp ..	1878
Edison (do.) ..	Motion Picture Machine ..	1894
Wright Bros. (do.) ..	Aeroplane ..	1903
Goodyear (do.) ..	Vulcanised Rubber ..	1839
W. Hunt (do.) ..	Safety Pin ..	1849
Westinghouse (do.) ..	Air Brake ..	1869
Hyatt (do.) ..	Celluloid ..	1870
Wilson (do.) ..	Calcium Carbide ..	1888
Thimonnier (France) ..	Sewing Machine ..	1830
Daguerre & Niepce (France) ..	Photography ..	1837
Nobel (Sweden) ..	Dynamite ..	1867

Gutenberg (Germany)	..	Cut Metal Type	1450
Fahrenheit (France)	..	Mercury Thermometer	..	1721
Galileo (Italy)	..	Telescope	1593
Marconi (Italy)	..	Wireless	1895
Roentgen (Germany)	..	X-ray Machine	1895
Eastman (America)	..	Photo Film	1883
Dreser (Germany)	..	Aspirin	1899
Unge (Sweden)	..	Bomb, depth	1903
Madam Curie (France)	..	Radium	1903
Ives (America)	..	Engraving, half-tone	..	1893
Tennant (England)	..	Bleaching Powder	1798
Wheatstone (do.)	..	Stereoscope	1838
Johnson (do.)	..	Portland cement	1884
I. L. Baird (do.)	..	Television	1926
Diesel (Germany)	..	Diesel Motor	1893
Stephenson (England)	..	Railway Engine	1829
Thomson (America)	..	Electric Welding	1869
Torricelli (Italy)	..	Barometer	1643
Hargreaves (England)	..	Spinning Jenny	1736
Bunsen (Germany)	..	Gas Stove Burners	..	1855
Sumens (England)	..	Electric Furnace	1861
Montgolfier (France)	..	Balloon	1783
Schultz (U. S. A.)	..	Chrome Tanning	1884
Huygens (Netherlands)	..	Pendulum Clock	1656
Wm. Murdock (England)	..	Gas Lighting System	..	1792
Senefelder (Bohemia)	..	Lithography	1798
Emile Berliner (U. S. A.)	..	Microphone	1877
Dunlop (Ireland)	..	Pneumatic Tyre	1888
Brearley (England)	..	Stainless Steel	1914
Macmillan (Scotland)	..	Bicycle	1840
Vielle (France)	..	Smokeless Powder	1886
Korn (Germany)	..	Photo sent by Wire	..	1902
Lumiere (France)	..	Motion Picture Projector	..	1895
B. Pascal (France)	..	Adding Machine	1642
Cierva	..	Autogyro	1925
Mergenthaler (America)	..	Linotype	1885
Davy (England)	..	Miner's Safety Lamp	..	1815
Sauria (France)	..	Phosphorus Match	1831
Waterman (America)	..	Fountain Pen	1864
Bessemer (England)	..	Steel	1858
Radio Corporation of America	..	Pictures by Wireless	..	1924
Sholes (America)	..	Typewriter	1868
Count Zeppelin (Germany)	..	Zeppelin	1908
Faraday (England)	..	Dynamo	1831
Damler-Benz (Germany)	..	Automobile, Gasoline	..	1884
Curtiss (France)	..	Hydroplane	1911

Brush	..	Arc Light	1879
Gillette (America)	..	Safety Razor	1904
Bose (India)	..	Crescograph
Swinton (England)	..	Tank (Military)	1914
Gatling (1861) and Lewis (1912)	..	Machine Gun
Swan (England)	..	Rayon	1883
Otis (U. S. A.)	..	Elevator	1852
Laennec (France)	..	Stethoscope	1819
Perkin (England)	..	Aniline Dyes	1856

MEDICAL DISCOVERIES

Antiseptics Surgery introduced by Lord Lister, 1867.

Bacteria discovered by Van Leenwenhoek, 1680.

Cholera bacillus discovered by Koch (Ger.) 1884.

Diphtheria germs discovered by Klebs, 1883.

Diphtheria antitoxin discovered by Behring, 1889.

Hydrophobia antitoxin treatment introduced by Pasteur, 1885.

Insulin—specific for relief of diabetes is discovered by Banting (Canada) 1922.

Blood parasite causing malaria discovered by Laveran, 1880.

Life history of malaria parasite by Ronald Ross (Eng.).

Blood Transfusion by Landsteiner (Austria).

Plague bacillus discovered by Kitasato and Yersin, 1894.

Sleeping Sickness due to tsetse fly proved by Bruce, 1903.

Tetanus germs discovered by Nicolaier, 1884.

Typhoid bacillus discovered by Eberth (Ger.), 1880.

Tubercle bacillus discovered by Robert Koch (Ger.), 1882.

Vaccination—first inoculation by Dr. Jenner, 1796.

Aspirin—first made by Dreser (Germany), 1899.

Salvarsan—a cure for syphilis discovered by German bacteriologist, Paul Ehrlich (1910).

Radium—discovered by Madame Curie (France) in 1898; extensively used in surgery in the treatment of certain diseases.

Blood circulation (continuous)—first demonstrated by Harvey (England) in 1628.

Yellow Fever—Parasite of the disease, discovered by H. Noguchi (Japan) in 1918 for which he developed prophylactic vaccine and a curative serum.

Sero-diagnosis in syphilis—first discovered by Wasserman (Germany) in 1907, popularly known as Wasserman Test.

Curative effect of ultra-violet rays—first discovered by Neils R. Finsen, Danish scientist.

Life history of malaria parasite—discovered by Ronald Ross (Eng.)

Penicillin—discovered by Prof. Fleming (Eng.) and developed by Dr. Flory (Eng.)—potent weapon against blood poison, pneumonia, gonorrhœa and staphylococci and unhealed infections.

CHEMICAL & PHYSICAL DISCOVERIES

- | | | |
|------------------------------|----|--|
| A. Windaus (Germany) | .. | Discovery of vitamin D. |
| I. Langmuir (Am.) | .. | Inventor of gas filled tungsten lamps. |
| H. C. Urey (Am.) | .. | Discovery of heavy water. |
| F. Soddy (Eng.) | .. | Formulated the theory of isotopes. |
| C. Eijkman (Dutch) | .. | Discovery of vitamin B. |
| F. G. Hopkins (Eng.) | .. | Discovery of vitamin A. |
| Ivon P. Pavlov (Russia) | .. | Study of animal behaviour—conditioned reflex. |
| E. Mechnikoff (Russia) | .. | Study of immunity in infectious diseases. |
| E. T. Kocher (Swiss) | .. | Surgery of thyroid gland. |
| Alexis Carrel (Am.) | .. | Transplanting of living tissue. |
| A. Kossel (Ger.) | .. | Elucidation of chemical composition of body cells. |
| W. R. Roentgen (Ger.) | .. | Discovery of X-rays. |
| A. H. Becquerel (Fr.) | .. | Discovery of radio activity. |
| Philipp Lenard (Hung.) | .. | Discovered penetrating power of cathode rays. |
| Max Plank (Ger.) | .. | Formulation of quantum theory. |
| A. Einstein (Ger.) | .. | Theory of relativity ; discovered the law of photo-electric effect. |
| Neels H. D. Bohr (Denn.) | .. | Theory of atomic structure—electrons moving in orbits. |
| C. V. Raman (India) | .. | Study of infra-red absorption bands of transparent substances. |
| Victor F. Hess (Austr.) | .. | Study on origin of cosmic radiation. |
| H. Herz (Ger.) | .. | Invented an apparatus called 'Electric eye' by which Electro-magnetic waves known as Hertzian waves, were detected. Wireless telegraphy is the direct outcome of this discovery. |
| Sigmund Freud (Aus.) | .. | Founder of psycho-analysis and also theory of dreams. |
| N. R. Finsen (Den.) | .. | Invented Finsen light for the treatment of skin diseases. |
| Bunsen (Ger.) | .. | Invented magnesium light and gas burner known as Bunsen burner. |
| S. Voronoff (Russia) | .. | Best known for his method of preventing or delaying senility by grafting healthy animal glands into the human body. |
| Sir A. Fleming & Prof. Flory | | Discoverers of Penicillin—the wonder drug. |
| Emil von Behring (Ger.) | .. | Founder of the science of immunology; first discovered and demonstrated the value of antitoxin in the treatment of tetanus in animals in collaboration of Ketasato. |
| (Eng.) | .. | |

- Emil Ehrlich (Ger.) .. Prepared in 1910 an arsenical compound of Salvarsan—cures for Syphilis.
 Otto Hahn (Ger.) .. Discoverer of Atom Bomb (1944-45)

Discoverers of Chemical Elements

<i>Elements</i>	<i>Discoverer</i>	<i>Elements</i>	<i>Discoverer</i>
Actinium (1889)	.. Debiérne	Magnesium (1830)	.. Liebig, Bussy
Aluminium (1927)	.. Wohler	Manganese (1774)	.. Galn
Antimony (1450)	.. Valentine	Neon (1898)	.. Ramsay
Argon (1894)	.. Rayleigh, Ramsay	Nickel (1751)	.. Travers
Barium (1808)	.. Davy	Nitrogen (1772)	.. Cronstedt
Boron (1808)	.. Davy	Osmium (1804)	.. Rutherford
Bromine (1926)	.. Balard	Oxygen (1774)	.. { Tennant
Calcium (1808)	.. Davy	Phosphorus (1669)	.. { Priestley
Chlorin (1774)	.. Scheele	Polonium (1898)	.. Scheele
Chromium (1787)	.. Vanquelin	Potassium (1807)	.. The Curies
Cobalt (1735)	.. Brandt	Radium (1898)	.. Brandt
Fluorin (1771)	.. Scheele	Silicon (1823)	.. The Curies
Helium (1895)	.. Ramsay	Sodium (1807)	.. Berzelins
Hydrogen (1766)	.. Cavandish	Thallium (1861)	.. Davy
Iodin (1811)	.. Courtois	Tungsten (1783)	.. Crookes
Iridium (1804)	.. Tenant	Uranium (1789)	.. d'Elhujar
Linthium (1817)	.. Arfvedson	Xenon (1898)	.. Klaproth
			.. Ramsay, Travers

NOBEL PRIZES

Physics

- 1901—W. C. Roentgen, Germany.
 1902—H. A. Lorentz, Denmark and P. Zeeman, Denmark.
 1903—A. H. Becquerel, France and Pierre Curie and Marie Curie, France.
 1904—Lord Rayleigh, England.
 1905—Philippe Lenard, Germany.
 1906—J. J. Thomson, England.
 1907—A. A. Michelson, America.
 1908—G. Lippman, France.
 1909—G. Marconi, Italy and F. Braun, Germany.
 1910—J. D. van der Waals, Holland.
 1911—Prof. W. Wien, Germany.
 1912—Gustaf Dalen, Sweden.
 1913—Prof. H. Kamerlingh-Onnes, Denmark.
 1914—Prof. M. von Laue, Ger.
 1915—Prof. W. H. Bragg and W. L. Bragg, England.
 1916—*Not awarded.*
 1917—C. G. Barlka, England.
 1918—Max Planck, Germany.
 1919—Prof. J. Starke, Germany.
 1920—Prof. C. E. Guillaume, Switzerland.
 1921—Dr. Albert Einstein (Ger.).
 1922—Prof. N. Bohr, Denmark.
 1923—R. A. Millikan, America.
 1924—K. M. G. Seigbahn, Sweden.
 1925—Dr. James Frank, Germany and Dr. Gustav Hertz, Ger.

- 1926—Jean B. Perrin, France. 1934—*No award.*
 1927—Prof. Arthur Compton 1935—J. Chadwick, England.
 America and Prof. C. T. Rees Wilson, England. 1936—Prof. V. G. Hess, Austria
 and C. D. Anderson (Am.)
 1928—Prof. O. W. Richardson, England. 1937—C. J. Davisson, America and
 G. P. Thomson, England.
 1929—Duc. L. V. de' Brogile France. 1938—Enrico Fermi, Italy.
 1930—Sir Chandrasekhara Venkata Raman, India. 1939—E. O. Lawrence, America.
 1931—*No award.* 1940-42—*No award.*
 1932—W. Heisenberg, Germany. 1943—Prof. Ostern (America).
 1933—Prof. P. A. M. Dirac, England and Prof. Erwin Schrodinger, Austria. 1944—Prof. Rabi (America).
 1945—Dr. Pauli (Switzerland)

Medicine and Physiology

- 1901—E. Adolf von Behring, Ger.
 1902—Sir Ronald Ross, England.
 1903—N. R. Finsen, Denmark.
 1904—I. P. Pavlov, Russia.
 1905—R. Koch, Germany.
 1906—Profs. Ramony Cajal, Spain and Camillo Golgi, Italy.
 1907—C. L. A. Laveran, France.
 1908—Dr. Paul Ehrlich, Germany and Prof. E. Matchnikoff, Paris.
 1909—Th. Kocher, Switzerland.
 1910—Dr. A. Kosel, Germany.
 1911—A. Gullstrand, Sweden.
 1912—Dr. A. Carrel, America.
 1913—C. Richet, France.
 1914—Dr. R. Barany, Austria.
 1915-18—*No award.*
 1919—Dr. J. Bordet, Belgium.
 1920—Prof. A. Krogh, Denmark.
 1921—*No award.*
 1922—Prof. A. Hill, England and Prof. Mayerhoff, Germany.
 1923—Dr. F. G. Banting and Dr. J. J. R. McLeod, Canada.
 1924—W. Einthoven, Holland.
 1925—*No award.*
 1926—Prof. J. Fibiger, Denmark.
 1927—Julius W. Jauregg, Austria.
 1928—Charles Nicolle, France.
 1929—Dr. F. G. Hopkins, England and Dr. E. Eijkmann, Holland.
 1930—Karl Landsteiner, America.
 1931—Otto H. Warburf, Ger.
 1932—Sir Charles Sherrington, England and Prof. E. D. Adrian, England.
 1933—T. H. Morgan, America.
 1934—Drs. G. Minot, W. P. Murphy and Dr. G. H. Whipple, America.
 1935—Dr. H. Spemann, Germany.
 1936—Sir Henry Dale, England & Prof. Otto Loewe, Austria.
 1937—Prof. Albert von Szentgyorgyi, Hungary.
 1938—Prof. C. Heymans, Belgium.
 1939—Prof. G. Domagk, Germany.
 1940-42—*No award.*
 1943—Prof. Kenrik Dam, Copenhagen & Prof. E. Adelbert Doisy, U.S.A.
 1944—Prof. Joseph Erlanger, U.S.A. & Prof. H. Gasser, U.S.A.
 1945—Sir A. Fleming, Sir Howard Florey & Dr. E. Chaim (Eng.).

Chemistry

- 1901—J. H. Hoff, Holland.
 1902—Emil Fisher, Germany.
 1903—S. Arrhenius, Sweden.
 1904—Sir W. Ramsay, England.
 1905—A. von Baeyer, Germany.
 1906—Prof. H. Moissan, France.
 1907—E. Buchner, Germany.
 1908—Prof. Ernest Rutherford, England.
 1909—Prof. W. Ostwald, Ger.
 1910—Otto Wallach, Germany.
 1911—Marie S. Curie, France.
 1912—Prof. Grignard, France and Prof. P. Sabatier, France.
 1913—Alfred Werner, Switzerland
 1914—T. W. Richards, America.
 1915—R. Willstätter, Germany.
 1916-17—*No award*.
 1918—Fritz Harber, Germany.
 1919—*No award*.
 1920—Walter Nerst, Germany.
 1921—Prof. F. Soddy, England.
 1922—F. W. Aston, England.
 1923—Fritz Pregl, Austria.
 1924—*No award*.
 1925—R. Zsigmondy, Germany.
- 1926—Dr. T. Svedberg, Sweden.
 1927—Prof. H. Windaus, Germany.
 1928—Dr. A. Windaus, Germany.
 1929—Dr. A. Harden, England & Prof. H. von Suller Cheplin, Sweden.
 1930—Hans Fischer, Germany.
 1931—Prof. Carl Bosch and Prof. F. Bergius, Germany.
 1932—I. Langmuir, America.
 1933—*No award*.
 1934—Dr. H. C. Urey, America.
 1935—Prof. & Mrs. F. Joliot, France.
 1936—Prof. Debye, Germany.
 1937—W. N. Haworth, England & Paul Karrer, Switzerland.
 *1938—Prof. R. Khun, Germany.
 *1939—Prof. Butenandt, Germany and Prof. Ruzicka, Switzerland.
 1940-42—*No award*.
 1943—Prof. George von Hevesy, Sweden.
 1944—Oto Hahn, Germany.
 1945—Prof. Arthuri Wirtanen, Finland.

Literature

- 1901—R. F. A. Sully-Prudhomme, France.
 1902—T. Mommsen, Germany.
 1903—B. Bjornson, Norway.
 1904—H. F. Mistral, France and Jose Echegaray, Spain.
 1905—H. Sienkiewicz, Poland.
 1906—Prof. G. Carducci, Italy.
 1907—R. Kipling, England.
 1908—Prof. R. Eucken, Germany.
 1909—Selma Lagerlof, Sweden.
 1910—Paul Heyse, Germany.
 1911—M. Maeterlinck, Belgium.
 1912—G. Hauptmann, Germany.
- 1913—Rabindranath Tagore, Bengal
 1924—*No award*.
 1915—Romain Rolland, France.
 1916—V. Heidenstam, Sweden.
 1917—Karl Gjellerup and H. Pontoppidan, Denmark.
 1914—*No award*.
 1919—C. Spitteler, Switzerland.
 1920—Knut Hamsun, Norway.
 1921—Anatole France, France.
 1922—J. Benavente, Spain.
 1923—William B. Yeats, Ireland.
 1924—W. S. Reymont, Poland.
 1925—G. B. Shaw, England.

- 1926—Grazia de Ledda, Italy.
 1927—Henri Bergson, France.
 1928—Mme. S. Undset, Norway.
 1929—T. Mann, Germany.
 1930—Sinclair Lewis, America.
 1931—Erik A. Karlfeldt, Sweden
 1932—J. Galsworthy, England.
 1933—Ivan Bunin, Russia.
 1934—Lugi Pirandello, Italy.

- 1935—*No award.*
 1936—Eugene O'Neil, America.
 1937—R. H. du Gard, France.
 1938—Pearl Buck, America.
 1939—Eemil Sillanpaa, Finland.
 1940-43—*No award.*
 1944—Dr. J. V. Jensen (Dannish).
 1945—Gabriello Mesbrali (Chille).

Peace

- 1901—Henri Dunant, Switzerland
 & Frederick Passy, France.
 1902—Elei Ducommun, Switzerland
 and A. Gobat, Switzerland.
 1903—W. R. Cremer, England.
 1904—The Institute of Interna-
 tional Law, Ghent.
 1905—Baroness B. von Suttner,
 Austria.
 1906—T. Roosevelt, America.
 1907—E. T. Moneta, Italy & Louis
 Renault, France.
 1908—K. P. Arnoldson, Sweden &
 M. F. Bajer, Denmark.
 1909—Bardon de Constant, France
 & M. Beernaert, Belgium.
 1910—International Permanent
 Peace Bureau, Switzerland.
 1911—Prof. T. M. C. Asser, Hol-
 land & A. Fried, Austria.
 1912—Elihu Root, America.
 1913—H. la Fontaine, Belgium.
 1914-16—*No award.*
 1917—International Red Cross,
 Geneva.
 1918—*No award.*
 1919—Woodrow Wilson, America.
 1919—Leon Bourgeois, France.

- 1921—K. H. Branting, Sweden &
 Christian L. Lange, Norway.
 1922—F. Nansen, Norway.
 1923-24—*No award.*
 1925—Gen. C. G. Dawes, America
 and Sir. Austen Chamberlin,
 England.
 1926—Aristide Briand, France and
 G. Stresemann, Germany.
 1927—F. Buisson, France and Lud-
 wig Quidde, Germany.
 1928—*No award.*
 1929—F. B. Kellogg, America.
 1930—Dr. N. Soderblom, Sweden.
 1931—Miss. Jane Addams & Dr.
 N. M. Butler, America.
 1932—*No award.*
 1933—Norman Angell, England.
 1934—A. Henderson, England.
 1935—Carl von Ossietosgy, Ger-
 many.
 1936—C. S. Lamas, Argentine.
 1937—Viscount Cecil, England.
 1938—Nansen International Office
 for Refugees, Geneva.
 1939-43—*No award.*
 1944—Cordell Hull, U.S.A.
 1945—International Committee of
 Red Cross, Switzerland.

Big Libraries

	Items		Items
National Library, Kieve (U. S. S. R.) ..	7,097,000	National Public Library (Leningrad) ..	6,499,000
Public Lenin Library (Moscow) ..	6,600,000	Library of Congress (Washington) ..	4,992,000

Big Libraries—(concluded)

Bibliothèque Nationale (Paris)	4,500,000	Harvard University (U. S. A.)	3,803,000
British Museum (London)	4,450,000	Prussian State Library (Berlin)	2,698,000
Public Library (New York)	3,817,000	Royal National Central Library (Florence) ..	2,313,000

Flags of Nations

<i>Afghanistan</i> —Green, red & black with white device in the centre.	<i>Norway</i> —Red with white bordered blue cross.
<i>Belgium</i> —Three vertical bands, black, yellow, red.	<i>Portugal</i> —Green and red with arms in centre.
<i>China</i> —White sun in blue sky over red ground.	<i>Rumania</i> —Three vertical bands, blue, yellow, red.
<i>Denmark</i> —Red with white cross.	<i>Spain</i> —A tricolour having three horizontal bars.
<i>Egypt</i> —Green with 1 white crescent and three 5-pointed white star between the horns.	<i>Switzerland</i> —Red with white cross.
<i>Finland</i> —White with blue cross.	<i>Thailand</i> —Five horizontal bands, red, white, dark blue, white, red.
<i>France</i> —The 'Tricolour', three vertical bands, blue, white, red.	<i>Turkey</i> —Red with white crescent and star.
<i>Germany</i> —Swastika.	<i>U. S. S. R.</i> —A plain red field whose upper corner next the staff has a golden five-pointed star in outline and below, in gold a sickle and a hammer, symbolizing agriculture and industry.
<i>Greece</i> —9 horizontal bands, alternately blue and white, with white cross in blue ground in corner.	<i>United Kingdom</i> —Union Jack combines the red upright cross, on a white ground, of St. George of England with the white diagonal cross on blue, of St. Andrews of Scotland, and the red diagonal cross, on white, of St. Patrick of Ireland.
<i>Italy</i> —Three vertical bands, green, white, red.	
<i>India</i> —A tricolour flag of white, green, orange (Congress).	
<i>Japan</i> —White charged with rising sun (red).	
<i>Netherlands</i> —Three horizontal bands, red, white, blue.	

Birth-Stones

January	Garnet	July	Ruby
February	Amethyst	August	Peridot or Sardoynx
March	Bloodstone	Sept.	Sapphire
April	Diamond	Oct.	Opal or Tourmaline
May	Emerald	Nov.	Topaz
June	Pearl or moon-stone	Dec.	Turquoise or Lapislazuli

Speed of Birds

	M. P. h.		m. p. h.		m. p. h.
Swift upto	200	Eagle	120	Sparrow	35
Hawk	180	Pegion	100	Pheasant	30
Falcon	150	Humming bird	55	Partridge	30
Swallow	125	Robin	36		

Animal Records

<i>Tallest Animal</i> —Giraffe.	<i>Largest of the sea birds</i> —Albatross.
<i>Largest land animal</i> —Elephant.	<i>Fastest animal</i> —Cheetah.
<i>Fastest Bird</i> —Swift, sometimes flies 200 miles per hour.	<i>Largest bird</i> —Ostrich.
<i>Largest quadruped of the dog family</i> —Wolf.	<i>Largest sea animal</i> —Blue Whale.
<i>Largest animal of the cat family</i> —Lion.	<i>Smallest bird</i> —Humming bird.
<i>Largest of man-like or anthropoid apes</i> —Gorilla.	<i>Longest-lived creature</i> —Blue Whale (500 years).
	<i>Largest of the flat fish</i> —Halibut.

Railway Records

<i>World's longest Non-stop run</i>	<i>'Flying Scotsman'</i> —King's Cross to Edinburgh, 329 $\frac{1}{4}$ miles.
<i>World's largest escalator</i>	Leicester Square Under-ground Station: 161 ft. long with rise of 80 ft. 8 in.
<i>World's largest covered Goods Station.</i>	Bristol (Temple meads).
<i>World's busiest Railway Junction.</i>	Clapham (Eng.) Junction—2,500 trains in every 24 hours.
<i>Shortest Private Railway</i>	Railway of the Pope in Vatican City; only $\frac{1}{8}$ of a mile.
<i>Shortest Public Railway</i>	Romney, H. & D. Rly.—length 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles, gauge 15 inches.
<i>Largest Underground Station</i>	In Berlin—opened in 1930 with 9 separate entrances and 8 moving stair-cases.
<i>Longest Rly. Tunnel</i>	Simplon (Switzerland-Italy)—12 m. 560 ft.
<i>Longest Railway Bridge</i>	Lower Zambesi (Africa), 12,064 ft.
<i>World's Longest Stretch of Straight Railway.</i>	Transcontinental Rly. of Australia which is a dead straight of 328 miles across Nullarbor plain.
<i>World's Fastest runs</i>	State Rly. (Germany) Diesel : 83.2 m.p.h. Union Pacific (U. S. A.) Steam : 81.0 m.p.h. State Rly. (Italy) Electric : 72.5 m.p.h.

Railway Records—(concluded)

- Highset Railways* Autofagasta & Bolivia Rly. attains altitudes of 15,843 ft.
Fastest Narrow Gauge Train In Java, State Rly. 49.08 miles per hour.
World's most northerly Rly. At Kings Bog. Spitsbergen, 750 miles from North Pole.

Railway Records in India

- Longest Rly. Bridge* Sone Bridge (10,052 ft.).
Longest Single Run Frontier Mail (N. W. R.) Bombay to Peshawar via Delhi, Lahore : 1594 miles.
Longest Rly. Platform Sonapur Platform (2,415 ft.).
Most Beautiful Station Victoria Terminus, Bombay.
Longest Electric Train Run Bombay-Poona.
Wonder Rly. of India Darjeeling Himalayan Railway—gauge is only 2 ft. and the gradients and curves are so dangerous that no less than 7,100 ft. have to be climbed and by adhesion only.

Highest Railways

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Peruvian Central Railway attains altitudes of 15,834 ft. | 3. Peruvian Southern, 14,688 ft. |
| 2. Autofagasta & Bolivian Rly. 15,843 ft. | 4. Maniton & Pikes Peck U.S.A. 14,109 ft. |
| | 5. Denver & Riograndi, 10,856 ft. |

Railway Gauges

Country	Gauge
1. Great Britain, Canada, U. S. A., Mexico, Peru, Egypt, China, Norway, Sweden, Denmark	4 ft. 8½ in.
2. Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Holland, Italy, Spain and Switzerland	4 ft. 9 in.
3. Ireland	5 ft. 3 in.
4. India, Argentine and Chile	5 ft. 6 in.
5. Spain, Portugal	5 ft. 5½ in.
6. New Zealand, Nigeria, S. Africa, Japan and Sudan	3 ft. 6 in.
7. Eastern Countries of Africa and Belgium Congo	3 ft. 3½ in.

Highest Railway Bridges

	ft.		ft.
Fades Viaduct (France)	434	Loa (Bolivia)	336
Victoria Falls (South Africa)	420	Assopos (Greece)	330
Garabut (France)	400	Pecos (S. Pacific)	321
Viain (France)	377	Goktick (Burma)	320

WORLD POPULATION

Area and Population of the Countries of the World

Name of State	Area (In square miles)	Population (000's omitted)
Abyssinia (Kingdom)	350,000	7,000
Afghanistan (Kingdom)	250,000	10,000
Albania (Republic)	11,000	1,000
Andorra (Republic)	175	6
Argentina (Republic)	1,113,000	13,000
Australia (Commonwealth)	2,000,000	7,000
Belgium (Kingdom)	11,750	8,250
Bolivia (Republic)	600,000	3,000
Brazil (Republic)	3,300,000	42,250
Bulgaria (Kingdom)	43,000	7,000
Burma	262,000	15,000
Canada (Dominion)	3,694,863	10,400
Ceylon (Cr. Colony)	25,500	6,000
Chile (Republic)	290,000	4,635
China Proper (Republic)	4,480,000	459,339
Columbia (Republic)	448,000	8,702
Costa Rica (Republic)	23,000	623
Cuba (Republic)	44,164	4,228
Danzig	754	415
Denmark (Kingdom)	16,580	3,700
Dominican Republic	19,300	1,478
Ecuador (Republic)	176,000	2,500
Egypt (Kingdom)	363,200	16,000
Eire (Dominion)	26,000	300
Estonia (Republic)	18,630	1,116
Finland (Republic)	150,000	3,810
France (Republic)	213,000	42,000
Germany	226,000	78,526
Greece (Republic)	50,000	7,000
Guatemala (Republic)	42,500	3,300
Haiti (Republic)	10,200	3,000
Honduras (Republic)	44,375	962
Hungary (Ind. State)	62,000	13,500
Iceland (Kingdom)	40,500	120
India (Dominion)	1,581,410	388,998
Iran (Kingdom)	630,000	15,000
Iraq (Kingdom)	116,000	3,560
Italy (Kingdom)	131,000	45,000
Japan (Empire)	263,000	105,250
Latvia (Republic)	25,000	2,000
Lithuania (Republic)	43,000	1,500

Area and Population of the Countries of the World

<i>Name of State</i>	<i>Area (In square miles)</i>	<i>Population (000's omitted)</i>
Liechtenstein (<i>Principality</i>)	60	10
Lithuania, (<i>Republic</i>)	19,000	2,250
Luxemburg (<i>Grand Duchy</i>)	1,000	300
Manchukuo (<i>Republic</i>)	500,000	40,000
Mexico (<i>Republic</i>)	769,000	19,500
Monaco (<i>Principality</i>)	4	23
Nepal (<i>Kingdom</i>)	54,000	5,600
Netherlands (<i>Kingdom</i>)	13,514	8,640
New Zealand (<i>Dominion</i>)	104,000	1,600
Nicaragua (<i>Republic</i>)	60,000	750
Norway (<i>Kingdom</i>)	5,244	1,280
Panama (<i>Republic</i>)	31,890	564
Paraguay (<i>Republic</i>)	62,000	900
Peru (<i>Republic</i>)	483,000	6,200
Phillippines (<i>Commonwealth</i>)	115,000	16,356
Poland (<i>Republic</i>)	150,000	32,150
Portugal (<i>Republic</i>)	35,000	7,166
Rumania (<i>Republic</i>)	84,000	12,000
Salvador (<i>Republic</i>)	13,180	1,665
San Marino (<i>Republic</i>)	33	13
Saudi Arabia (<i>Kingdom</i>)	927,000	6,500
Spain (<i>Republic</i>)	196,700	24,583
Sweden (<i>Kingdom</i>)	173,345	6,500
Switzerland (<i>Republic</i>)	15,950	4,100
Tibet (<i>Theocracy</i>)	463,000	3,000
Thailand (<i>Kingdom</i>)	200,000	14,464
Turkey (<i>Republic</i>)	295,000	16,158
Ukraine (<i>Republic</i>)	174,372	32,000
England & Wales (<i>Kingdom</i>)	58,343	41,031
United States (<i>Republic</i>)	3,026,789	131,670
Uruguay (<i>Republic</i>)	72,200	2,000
U. S. S. R. (<i>Asia</i>) (<i>Republic</i>)	6,750,000	54,000
Union of S. Africa (<i>Dominion</i>)	473,000	9,600
Vatican City	17	—
Venezuela (<i>Republic</i>)	363,730	2,000
Yugoslavia (<i>Republic</i>)	96,000	4,730

Jewish Populations of the World

Europe	8,940,000	Africa	598,000
America	5,343,000	Australasia	28,000
Asia	840,000		
		Total	15,749,000

U. S. Population

All classes	131,669,275	Negro	12,865,518
White	118,214,870	Other races	588,887
Native	106,795,732		
Foreign born	11,419,138		

Population by Religion

<i>Christian</i>		Jews	15,749,000
Roman Catholics	331,500,000	Moslems	209,020,000
Orthodox Catholics	144,000,000	Buddhist	150,180,000
Protestants	206,900,000	Hindus	230,150,000
Coptic Christians	10,000,000	Confucians & Taoists	350,600,000
		Animists, etc.	135,650,000
	692,400,000	Shintoists	25,000,000
		Unclassified	50,870,000
		Total	1,860,010,000

World Population

(League of Nation's Year Book 1940-41)

Africa	157,330,000	North America (c)	184,255,000
Asia (a)	1,154,000,000	South America	88,680,000
Europe (a)	402,800,000	Oceania	10,803,000
U. S. S. R. (b)	172,000,000		
			2,169,868,000

Population of Important Cities

City	Pop.	City	Pop.
Alexandria	682,000	Cairo	1,307,000
Amsterdam	793,500	Calcutta	2,108,891
Bangkok	931,170	Canton	861,024
Barcelona	2,301,164	Chicago	3,376,434
Berlin	4,299,318	Chungking	635,000
Birmingham	1,029,700	Cologne	757,000
Bombay	1,489,883	Glasgow	1,131,800
Breslau	625,000	Hamburg	1,682,220
Brussels	912,774	Hongkong	1,050,256
Budapest	1,162,800	Istanbul	883,599
Buenos Aires	2,318,000	Kobe	1,000,100

(a) Excluding U. S. S. R.

(b) in Europe and Asia.

(c) including Mexico and Caribbean.

Population of Important Cities

City	Pop.	City	Pop.
Kyoto	1,177,200	Nanking	1,019,000
Leipzig	714,000	Paris	4,933,855
Leningrad	3,191,304	Osaka	3,000,000
London	8,700,000	Peiping	1,560,000
Los Angeles	1,496,792	Prague	848,823
Madrid	1,725,000	Philadelphia	1,935,086
Manchester	766,333	Rio de Janeiro	1,700,000
Marseilles	914,000	Rome	1,348,700
Melbourne	1,000,000	Shanghai	3,418,000
Mexico City	1,754,000	Singapore	769,216
Milan	1,120,000	Teheran	540,000
Montreal	890,000	Tientsin	1,292,000
Moscow	4,137,018	Tokyo	6,581,000
Munich	828,325	Vienna	1,924,269
Mukden	835,000	Warsaw	1,265,700
Nagoya	1,249,100	Yokohama	866,200
New York	11,690,520	Washington	663,153
Naples	925,325		

THE WORLD GAZETTEER

(A BRIEF GUIDE TO THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD)

Abyssinia—Inland State in N.-E. Africa; area 350,000 sq. m. Pop. (estimated) 7,000,000. Conquered by Italy in 1936. Re-conquered by the Emperor with the help of the British. Capital—*Addis Ababa*.

Afghanistan—A Moslem kingdom lying between India and Iran; area 245,000 sq. m. Pop. about 12 millions. The Government is monarchical. Legislative power is vested in a parliament consisting of the King, a Senate of 40 members and a National Assembly of 120 elected members. The main routes to India are passes through the mountains, the chief being Khyber from Kabul and Bolan from Kandahar. Capital—*Kabul*.

Albania—Balkan Republic; was incorporated in Italy in 1939 but now a free republic; area 10,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,000,000. Capital—*Tirana*.

Anglo-Egyptian Sudan—is bounded by Libya and Egypt; area—969,000 sq. m. Pop. 6,342,477. Capital—*Khartoum*.

Andorra—Republic of Europe in the Eastern Pyrenees under the suzerainty of France and Bishop of Urgel; area 175 sq. m. Pop. 6,000. Capital—*Andorra*.

Argentina—Second largest S. American Republic; area 1,113,000 sq. m. Pop. 13,516,927. Capital—*Buenos Aires*. Government—Democracy.

Australia—Federal Commonwealth of British Empire; area 3,000,000 sq. m. Pop. 7,196,000. Capital—*Canberra*.

Austria—Was a part of Greater Germany but formed a separate State at the end of World War II ; area 32,000 sq. m. Pop. 6,530,000. Capital—*Vienna*.

Belgium—North-west European Kingdom ; area 11,795 sq. m. Pop. 8,213,443. Belgium is the most densely populated country in Europe, having 699 inhabitants to the sq. m. Capital—*Brussels*.

Bhutan—Area about 17,750 sq. m. Bhutan is a semi-independent Indian State having control of its internal affairs. The inhabitants are Mongolians and follow Buddhism. Agriculture is the chief industry. Capital—*Punakha*.

Bolivia—South American Republic ; area 600,000 sq. m. Pop. 3,226,296. Capital—*La Paz*.

Brazil—Republic in eastern South America and largest country in western hemisphere ; area 3,285,000 sq. m. Pop. 41,560,147. Capital—*Rio de Janeiro*.

Bulgaria—Balkan State ; area 39,880 sq. m. Pop. 6,254,000. Capital—*Sofia*.

Burma—Was separated from India under Government of India Act on April 1, 1937. It is a crown colony and was given a constitution of her own. Capital—*Rangoon*.

Canada—British Dominion ; area 3,648,500 sq. m. Pop. 11,012,734. Capital—*Ottawa*.

China—Republic of Asia since 1912 ; area 4,480,000 sq. m. most densely populated country in the world. Pop. (estimated) 457,835,475. Capital—*Chungking*.

Colombia—South American Republic ; area 440,000 sq. m. Pop. 8,000,000. Capital—*Bogota*.

Chile—A democratic State of South America, area 296,717 sq. m. Pop. 5,164,984. Capital—*Santiago*.

Costa Rica—Central American Republic ; area 23,000 sq. m. Pop. 500,000. Capital—*San Jose*.

Cuba—The 'Pearl of Antilles' is the largest island in the West Indies ; area 44,164 sq. m. Pop. 4,228,000. Capital—*Havana*.

Czechoslovakia—Republic of Central Europe that rose after the Great War, comprising areas formerly belonging to Austria-Hungary ; area 54,000 sq. m. Pop. 14,600,000. Capital—*Prague*.

Danzig—Free city of ; became a free city under the League of Nations ; was occupied by Germany in the war against Poland (1939) ; area 754 sq. m. Pop. 497,550.

Denmark—Kingdom of North Europe ; area 16,570 sq. m. Pop. 3,500,000. Capital—*Copenhagen*.

Dominican Republic—Part of the Island of San Domingo ; area 19,300 sq. m. Pop. 1,022,000. Capital—*Guidad Trujillo*.

Eire or Ireland—Is a sovereign independent state associated for certain purposes with British Commonwealth of Nations. The Government of Eire is bicameral with a President elected directly by the people for a

term of seven years ; a House of Representatives called Dail Eireann and a Senate. Pop. 2,968,420. Capital—*Dublin*.

Ecuador—Republic of South America in the Pacific coast, area 118,627 sq. m. Pop. 3,200,000. Capital—*Quito*.

Egypt—An independent Kingdom of N.-E. Africa ; area 385,000 sq. m. Pop. 15,904,525. Egypt became British protectorate in 1914 and remained under British flag until 1922, when a kingdom was established under a sovereign. An Anglo-Egyptian treaty was signed in 1936 which limited British military occupation to a garrison of 10,000 troops and 400 aeroplanes at the Suez Canal and which accorded the British the right to use Alexandria and Port Said as naval bases. Capital—*Cairo*.

England—Southern part of Great Britain ; area 50,474 sq. m. Pop. 41,460,000. Capital—*London*.

Estonia—Independent Baltic State, was forced to accept Russian protectorate in 1940 ; area 18,500 sq. m. Pop. 1,116,500. Capital—*Reval*.

Finland—Republic of Northern Europe ; was proclaimed an independent state in July 29, 1917 and a republic on October 5 of the same year ; area 144,300 sq. m. Pop. 3,580,000. Capital—*Helsinki*.

France—A republic of W. Europe ; area 212,000 sq. m. Pop. 41,834,923. Capital—*Paris*.

Germany—Central European state now under Allied control. Area 181,000 sq. m. Pop. 78,700,000. Capital—*Berlin*.

Greece—A republic of South Europe ; area 50,000 sq. m. Pop. 6,204,684. Capital—*Athens*.

Guatemala—Republic of Central America ; area 48,290 sq. m. Pop. 2,500,000. Capital—*Guatemala*.

Haiti—Republic. Part of San Domingo in West Indies ; area 10,200 sq. m. Pop. 2,300,000. Capital—*Port au Prince*.

Honduras—Republic of Central America ; area 46,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,000,000. Capital—*Tegucigalpa*.

Hungary—European Republic formerly part of Austro-Hungary ; area 35,875 sq. m. Pop. 13,507,993. Capital—*Budapest*.

Iceland—Island in the North Atlantic Ocean under Denmark ; area 397,000. Pop. 103,217. Capital—*Reykjavik*.

India—Indian Empire ; part of British Empire ; area over 1,581,410 sq. m. Pop. 388,997,955. Capital—*New Delhi*.

Indo-China—281,000 sq. m. Pop. 24,000,000. French dependency consisting of five parts, Cochin-china, Annam, Cambodia, Tonking and Laos. The whole territory is governed by a Governor-General.

Iran—Kingdom of Western Asia, formerly known as Persia ; area 628,000 sq. m. Pop. 10,000,000. Capital—*Teheran*.

Iraq—Formerly known as Mesopotamia ; now one of the state lying between Arabia and Persia ; created as a result of Great War ; area 116,600 sq. m. Pop. 3,000,000. It is a mandated territory under Great Britain. Capital—*Bagdad*.

Italy—Kingdom of Europe ; area 131,000 sq. m. Pop. 45,611,000. Capital—*Rome*.

Japan—Island Empire of Asia ; is situated in the North Pacific Ocean off the coast of China and Siberia ; area 260,000 sq. m. Pop. 105,226,101. The government rests in an Emperor and an Imperial Diet consisting of a House of Representatives and House of Peers. Emperor exercises complete, executive power with the advise and assistance of Cabinet Ministers Capital—*Tokio*. After the surrender of Japan, it is now partly under Allied Control.

Latvia—Baltic Republic ; area 20,056 sq. m. Pop. 1,950,000. Capital—*Riga*.

Liberia, Republic of—Independent Negro Republic of Western Africa ; area 43,000 sq. m. Capital—*Monrovia*.

Leichtenstein—65 sq. m. Pop. 10,213, is an independent principality on the Upper Rhine between Austria and Switzerland. Capital—*Vaduz*.

Luxemburg, Grand Duchy of—Area 999 sq. m. Luxemburg is a European Grand Duchy situated between Germany, Belgium and France. It was given its present rank as a principality by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Capital—*Luxemburg*.

Lithuania—Baltic Republic ; area 20,500 sq. m. Pop. 2,290,000. Capital—*Kovno*.

Lebanon—Was recognised as an independent state in 1920 under the mandate of France. Capital—*Bairut*.

Manchukuo—Area 503,013 sq. m. Pop. 36,947,972 ; was a 'puppet' state of Japan, but gained its independence after defeat of Japan in 1945. Capital—*Hsinking*.

Mexico—Republic in N. and S. America, area 760,000 sq. m. Pop. 19,478,781. Capital—*Mexico City*.

Monaco—A tiny independent principality in south of France ; is located on the Mediterranean with land frontiers joining France at every point ; area 799 sq. m. Pop. 22,153. Capital—*Monaco*.

Morocco—French protectorate of North Africa ; area 172,104 sq. m. Pop. 7,500,000. Capital—*Fez*.

Netherlands—Kingdom of Holland ; in North-western Europe, area 12,590 sq. m. Pop. 8,183,327. Capital—*Amsterdam*.

Newfoundland—is the oldest British colony at the eastern end of British America in the Atlantic Ocean ; area 42,734 sq. m. Pop. 265,000. Capital—*St. Johns*.

New Zealand—British Dominion group in South Pacific ; area 104,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,640,401. Capital—*Wellington*.

Nicaragua—Central American Republic ; area 60,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,172,324. Capital—*Managua*.

Northern Ireland—Comprising six counties of Ulster. Has a separate Parliament ; area 5,237 sq. m. Capital—*Belfast*.

Norway—Kingdom of North Europe ; area 124,964 sq. m. Pop. 2,800,000. Capital—*Oslo*.

Palestine—Formerly belonging to Turkey, now administered by Great

Britain under mandate from League of Nations; area 10,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,466,536. Capital—*Jerusalem*.

Panama, Republic of—Area 33,667 sq. m. It occupies the entire Isthmus of that name connecting North and South America. Capital—*Panama*.

Paraguay, Republic of—South American Republic; Area—174,854 sq. m. Capital—*Asuncion*.

Peru—Republic of South America; area 482,616 sq. m. Pop. 6,147,000 Capital—*Lima*.

Nepal—An independent state on the southern slope of the Himalayas. It is the only independent Hindu kingdom; area 54,000 sq. m. Pop. 5,639,092. Though there is king, the virtual ruler of the State is the Commander-in-Chief. Capital—*Katmandu*.

Poland—Independent country of E. Europe; area 150,000 sq. m. Pop. 34,775,698. Republic was formed following the world war of reunited parts of the old kingdom dismembered about 150 years ago by Russia, Austria and Prussia. Capital—*Warsaw*.

Portugal—Republic of S. W. Europe; area 35,490 sq. m. Pop. 6,825,883. Capital—*Lisbon*.

Rumania—Independent kingdom of S. W. Europe; area 72,425 sq. m. Pop. 17,400,000. Capital—*Bucharest*.

Russia—Union of Soviet Socialist Republics composed of Russian, Ukrainian, White Russian, Transcaucasian, Turkoman, Tadjikanduzbeg Republics; area 8,150,000 sq. m. Pop. 192,695,710. Capital—*Moscow*.

Salvador—Republic of Central America; area 13,183 sq. m. Pop. 1,700,000. Capital—*San Salvador*.

San Marino, Republic of—38 sq. m. Pop. 13,948, is situated in the Apennines in the heart of Italy, claims to be the oldest State of Europe.

Scotland—Northern Division of Great Britain; area 30,406 sq. m. and has been founded in the fourth century. Pop. 4,482,554. Capital—*Edinburgh*.

South Africa, Union of—British Dominion; area 472,350 sq. m. Pop. 10,708,000. Capitals—*Pretoria and Cape Town*.

Spain—Republic of S. W. Europe; area 194,000 sq. m. Pop. 26,000,000. Was proclaimed a republic on April 14, 1931. Capital—*Madrid*.

Soudi Arabia—is the most important Kingdom of the vast peninsula known as Arabia, formed in 1932 by the union of Hejaz and Nejd with certain dependencies. Area about 800,000 sq. m. Capital—*Riyadh*.

Sweden—Kingdom of North Europe; area 173,150 sq. m. Pop. 6,000,000. Government is a constitutional monarchy. The legislature has two chambers. Capital—*Stockholm*.

Syria and Lebanon—(French Mandate) area 57,900 sq. m. former province of Turkey, now made an independent state by the Treaty of Sevres, 1920 and administered under French mandate. Capital of Syria—*Damascus*. Capital of Lebanon—*Beirut*.

Switzerland—Federal State of Europe; area 15,980 sq. m. Pop. 4,000,000. Capital—*Berne*.

Tibet—A country of Central Asia, lying N. and N. E. of the Himalayas,

mainly a high table-land. Nominally a Chinese dependency, it is practically independent under the rule of Dalai Lama. The trade with India is mostly carried on through lofty passes. Area 463,200 sq. m. Capital—*Lhasa*.

Thailand—Kingdom of South-eastern Asia ; area 200,150 sq. m. Pop. 10,000,000. Limited monarchy was established in 1932 with full franchise and an elected parliament. Capital—*Bangkok*.

Turkey—Republic of Asia and Europe ; area 282,000 sq. m. Pop. 17,830,185. Capital—*Ankara*.

United States of America—Federal Republic of North America ; area 3,750,000 sq. m. Pop. 135,604,000. Capital—*Washington*.

Uruguay—Smallest Republic in South America ; area 72,180 sq. m. Pop. 2,042,387. Capital—*Montevideo*.

Vatican City—New State in Rome under sovereign jurisdiction of Pope ; area 108 acres. Pop. 1,025.

Venezuela—S. American Republic ; area 72,153 sq. m. Pop. 2,093,333. Capital—*Caracas*.

Yugoslavia—Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, Slovenes and territory acquired from Austria and Bulgaria after Great War ; area 96,150 sq. m. Pop. 16,000,000. Capital—*Belgrade*.

POLITICAL INFORMATION

Rulers or Heads of Governments of the World

Country	Ruler	Executive Head
Afghanistan	.. Mohammed Zahir, Shah, K.	
Arabia-Saudi	.. Abd-el-Aziz, King.	
Argentina	.. Ramriz, President.	
Belgium	.. Leopold III, K. ..	M. von Acker.
Bhutan	.. Jig-me Wang-chuk.	
Bolivia	.. Gen. Enrique Penaranda, P.	
Brazil	.. General Dutra, P.	
Bulgaria	.. Simeon II, Czar ..	M. Boshilov.
Chile	.. Antonio Rios, P. ..	
China	.. Chiang Kai-shek, P. ..	Dr. T. V. Soong, P. M.
Colombia	.. Dr. Alfonso Lopez, P. ..	
Czecho-slovakia	.. Dr. E. Benes ..	Fielinger, P. M.
Danzig	.. Karl Burckhardt, H. C. ..	
Denmark	.. Christian X, King ..	M. Buhl, President.
Egypt	.. Faruk I, King ..	Nokrashy Pasha, P.
Eire	.. Eamon de Valera, P. M. ..	Sean O'Kelly P.
Finland	.. Marshal Mannerhum ..	M. Castrén.
France	.. M. Gouin, P.	
Germany	.. Under Allied occupation. ..	
Gt. Britain	.. George VI, K. and E. ..	C. R. Attlee.
Greece	.. King in exile ..	M. Sofoulis.

Rulers or Heads of Govts. of the World—Contd.

Country	Ruler	Executive Head
Hungary	Dr. Zolton Tildy, P. M.
Iceland	.. S. Bjornsson, Regent	H. Joranson, P. M.
India (Br.)	.. Lord Wavell, Viceroy.	..
Iran (Persia)	.. Mohammed Shah Pahlevi, Shah ..	M. Saltaneh, P. M.
Iraq (Meso- potamia)	.. Faisal II, King ..	Nuri Said Pasha.
Italy	.. Prince Humbert ..	Sgr. Gaspari, P. M.
Japan	.. Hirohito, Emperor ..	Baron Kijuro Shidehara.
Jugoslavia	.. King Peter II
Liberia	.. Edwin J. Barclay, P.	..
Luxemburg	.. Charlotte, G. D. ..	Dr. Joseph Hoof, G. G.
Mexico	.. Manuel Avila Camacho, P.	..
Monaco	.. Louis II, Prince.	..
Morocco	.. Sidi Mohammed, Sultan.	..
Nepal	.. Tribhubana Sir Bikram ..	Padma Shamshere Jung.
Netherlands	.. Wilhelmina, Q. ..	Prof. Schermerhorn, P.
Norway	.. Haakon VII ..	M. Gerhardsen.
Palestine	.. Sir Harold McMichael, H.C.	..
Panama	.. Ricardo Adolfo de la Guardia.	..
Paraguay	.. Higino Morinigo, P.	..
Peru	.. Manuel Prado, P.	..
Philippine Isl.	.. S. Osmena, President.	..
Portugal	.. Gen. A. Carmona, P. ..	Dr. O. Salazar.
Poland	.. M. Beirut P. ..	M. E. O. Morowski, P.M.
Rumania	.. Michael, King ..	Dr. Groza, P. M.
Slovakia	.. Dr. Tiso, P.	..
South Africa	.. G. V. Vanzyl ..	Jan Christian Smuts, P.
Soviet Union	.. M. Kalinin
Spain	.. Francisco Franco, Pre. ..	Francisco Franco, Pre.
Sweden	.. Gustaf V. King ..	Per. A. Hansson, P. M.
Switzerland	.. M. Von Steiger
Syria (French Mandate)	.. Sheik Tajeddine Hassani, P.	Shukry Kawatly, Pre.
Siam	.. Ananda Mahidol, King ..	Khaung Aphaiwong.
Trans-Jordan	.. Abdullah, Emir.	..
Tunis	.. Sidi, Ahmed, Bey.	..
Turkey	.. Gen. Ismet Inonu, P. ..	M. Serajaglu, P.
U. S. S. R.	.. Chairman—Supreme Soviet, M. J. Kalinin ..	V. Stalin, Chairman, Peoples' Commissaries.
United States
Vatican City	.. Pius XII, Pope S.	..
Yugoslavia	.. Peter II, King (in exile) ..	Marshal Tito, P. M.

American Presidents

<i>Name</i>	<i>Politics</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Politics</i>
1789-1797 George Washington	Fed.	1869-1877 Ulysses Grant	.. Rep.
1797-1801 John Adams	.. Fed.	1877-1881 R. B. Hayes	.. Rep.
1801-1809 Thomas Jefferson	.. Rep.	1881 James Garfield,	
1809-1817 James Madison	.. Rep.	(assasinated)	.. Rep.
1817-1825 James Monroe	.. Rep.	1881-1885 Chester Alan	
1825-1829 John Quincy Adams	Rep.	Arthur	.. Rep.
1829-1837 Andrew Jackson	Dem.	1885-1889 Grover Cleveland	Dem.
1937-1841 Martin Van Buren	Dem.	1889-1893 Benjamin Harrison	Rep.
1841 W. H. Harrison		1893-1897 Grover Cleveland	Dem.
(died in office)	Whig.	1897-1901 William McKinley	
1841-1845 John Taylor	Whig.	(assasinated)	.. Rep.
1845-1849 James Knox Polk	Dem.	1901-1909 Theodore Roosevelt	Rep.
1849-1850 Zachary Taylor		1909-1913 William H. Taft	.. Rep.
(died in office)	Whig.	1913-1921 Woodrow Wilson	Dem.
1850-1853 Millard Fillmore	Whig.	1921-1923 W. J. Harding	
1853-1857 Franklin Pierce	Dem.	(died in office)	Rep.
1857-1861 James Buchanan	Dem.	1923-1929 Calvin Coolidge	.. Rep.
1861-1865 Abraham Lincoln		1929-1933 Herbert C. Hoover	Rep.
(assasinated)	.. Rep.	1933-1945 Roosevelt	
1865-1869 Andrew Johnson	.. Rep.	(died in office)	Dem.
		1945 Harry S. Truman	Dem.

British Prime Ministers

Sir R. Walpole	..	1721	William Pitt (2nd time)	..	1804
Earl of Wilmington	..	1742	Lord Grenville	..	1806
Henry Pelham	..	1743	Duke of Portland (2nd time)	..	1807
Duke of Newcastle	..	1754	Spencer Perceval	..	1809
Duke of Devonshire	..	1756	Lord Liverpool	..	1812
William Pitt (afterwards			George Canning	..	1827
Earl of Chatham and Duke			Lord Goderich	..	1827
of Newcastle)	..	1757	Duke of Wellington	..	1828
Earl of Bute	..	1762	Earl Grey	..	1830
George Grenville	..	1763	Viscount Melbourne	..	1834
Marquess of Rockingham	..	1765	Sir Robert Peel	..	1834
Earl of Chatham (2nd time)	..	1766	Viscount Melbourne (2nd time)	..	1835
Duke of Grafton	..	1767	Sir Robert Peel (2nd time)	..	1841
Lord North	..	1770	Lord John Russell	..	1846
Marquess of Rockingham			Earl of Derby	..	1852
(2nd time)	..	1782	Earl of Aberdeen	..	1852
Earl of Sherburne (afterwards			Viscount Palmerston	..	1855
Marquess of Lansdowne)	..	1782	Earl of Derby (2nd time)	..	1858
Duke of Portland	..	1783	Viscount Palmerston (2nd		
William Pitt (the younger)	..	1783	time)	..	1859
Henry Addington	..	1801	Earl Russell (2nd time)	..	1865

Earl of Derby (3rd time) ..	1866	Arthur James Balfour ..	1902
Benjamin Disraeli ..	1868	Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman ..	1905
William Ewart Gladstone ..	1868	Herbert Henry Asquith ..	1908
Earl of Beaconsfield (2nd time) ..	187	David Lloyd George ..	1916
W. E. Gladstone (2nd time) ..	1880	Andrew Bonar Law ..	1922
Marquis Salisbury ..	1885	Stanley Baldwin ..	1923
W. E. Gladstone (3rd time) ..	1886	J. Ramsay MacDonald ..	1924
Marquis of Salisbury (2nd time) ..	1886	Stanley Baldwin (2nd time) ..	1924
W. E. Gladstone (4th time) ..	1892	J. Ramsay MacDonald (2nd time) ..	1929
Earl of Rosebery ..	1894	Stanley Baldwin (3rd time) ..	1935
Marquis of Salisbury (3rd time) ..	1895	N. Chamberlain ..	1937
		W. Churchill ..	1940
		C. R. Attlee ..	1945

Political Assassinations

- 1865—Abraham Lincoln, President U. S. A., April 14.
- 1872—Earl of Mayo, Governor-General of India.
- 1876—Abdul Aziz, Sultan of Turkey
- 1881—Czar Alexander of Russia and President Garfield (U.S.A.)
- 1894—President Carnot of France.
- 1896—Shah Nazr-ud-Din of Persia, May 1.
- 1898—Empress Elizabeth of Austria, September 10.
- 1900—King Humbert of Italy, July 29.
- 1901—President McKinley of U. S. A., September 6.
- 1903—King Alexander and Queen Draga of Serbia.
- 1905—Grand Duke Sergius of Russia.
- 1908—King Carlos and Crown Prince of Portugal.
- 1909—Prince Ito of Japan.
- 1911—Stolypin, Premier of Russia.
- 1912—Jose Canalejas, Prime Minister of Spain.
- 1913—King George I of Greece.
- 1914—Archduke, Francis Ferdinand of Austria, June 28.
- 1918—Czar Nicholas and his family, July 16.
- 1918—President Paes of Portugal.
- 1919—President Kurt Eisner of Bavaria; Amir Habibullah of Afghanistan.
- 1921—Dato, Premier of Spain.
- 1922—I. Narutowicz, 1st President of the Polish Republic, June 1.
- 1922—Michael Collins, Irish Free State Premier.
- 1928—Ex-President Gen. Alvaro Obregon of Mexico.
- 1930—Premier Hamaguchi of Japan.
- 1932—President Doumer of France. Takeshi Inukai, Japanese Premier, May 13.
- 1933—Emir Faisal, King of Iraq, Sept. 8. Ion Duca of Rumanian Premier, Dec. 24. King Nadir Shah of Afghanistan.
- 1934—Austrian Chancellor Dr. Dollfus; King Alexander I of Yugoslavia; M. Barthou, French Foreign Minister; Col. Pieracki, Polish Minister of Interior.
- 1935—Huey P. Long, U. S. Senator, September 10.

1936—K. Takahasi, Finance Minister, Admiral Saito, Admiral Suzuki, Japan.

1937—General Baqir Sidqi, Dictator of Iraq, August 12.

1938—E. Von Rath of German Embassy, Paris.

1939—Rumanian Premier M. Calinescu.

1940—Leon Trotsky, Russian communist leader.

1942—Heydrich, German Protector of Bohemia & Moravia; Admiral Darlan of France.

1944—Lord Moyne, Br. Resident Minister at Cairo.

1945—Mehar Pasha, Premier of Egypt.

World War 1914—1918

War Began—August 1, 1914.

Armistice Signed—Nov. 11, 1918.

Duration of War—4 years, 3 months, 11 days.

United States entered—April 6, 1917.

Paris Peace Conference Began—January 18, 1919.

German Peace Treaty Signed—June 28, 1919.

Austrian Peace Treaty Signed—September 10, 1919.

Bulgarian Peace Treaty Signed—November 27, 1919.

Hungarian Peace Treaty Signed—June 4, 1920.

Turkish Peace Treaty Signed—August 9, 1920.

Nations Involved—27.

Killed to November 11, 1918—7,450,200.

Cash cost to April 30, 1919—\$186,000,000,000.

Nations in Actual Conflict

Germany
Austria-Hungary
Turkey
Bulgaria

} *vs.*

United States...
Great Britain—
Canada.
India.
Australia.
New Zealand.
South Africa.

Russia.
France.
Belgium.
Serbia.
Montenegro.
Japan.
Italy.
Rumania.
Portugal.
Greece.

Casualties of all Belligerents in the World War*Source: U. S. War Department*

ALLIES	Total Mobilized Forces	Total Casualties	Per Cent.
Russia ..	12,000,000	9,150,000	76.3
France ..	8,410,000	6,160,800	73.3
British Empire ..	8,904,467	3,190,235	35.8
Italy ..	5,615,000	2,197,000	39.1
United States ..	4,355,000	350,000	8.0
Japan ..	800,000	1,210	.2
Rumania ..	750,000	535,706	71.4
Serbia ..	707,343	331,106	46.8
Belgium ..	267,000	93,061	34.9
Greece ..	230,000	27,000	11.7
Portugal ..	100,000	33,291	33.3
Montenegro ..	50,000	20,000	40.0
Total ..	42,188,810	22,089,709	52.3
CENTRAL POWERS			
Germany ..	11,000,000	7,142,558	64.9
Austro-Hungary ..	7,800,000	702,000	90.0
Turkey ..	2,850,000	975,000	34.2
Bulgaria ..	1,200,000	266,919	22.2
Total ..	22,850,000	15,404,477	67.4
Grand Total ..	65,038,810	37,494,186	57.6

Treaties of Peace

- Between Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey—
Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, March 3, 1918.
- Between Germany and Finland—March 7, 1918.
- Between Germany and Allies—Treaty of Versailles, June 28, 1919.
- Between Austria and Allies—Treaty of St. Germain, September 10, 1919.
- Between Bulgaria and Allies—Treaty of Neuilly, November 27, 1919.
- Between Turkey and Allies—Treaty of Sevres, August 10, 1920.
- Between Hungary and Allies—Treaty of Grand Trianon, June 4, 1920.

Popes of the Last 150 Years

Clement XIV ..	1769-1775	Pius IX ..	1846-1878
Pius VI ..	1775-1800	Leo XIII ..	1878-1903
Pius VII ..	1800-1823	Pius X ..	1903-1914
Leo XII ..	1823-1829	Benedict XV ..	1914-1922
Pius VIII ..	1829-1831	Pius XI ..	1922-1939
George XVI ..	1831-1845	Pius XII ..	1939-

Cost of Recent Wars

	<i>Days of Conflict</i>	<i>Loss of Life</i>	<i>Direct cost (\$)</i>
Napoleonic War (1790-1815) ..	9,000	2,100,000	3,070,000,000
Crimean War (1854-1856) ..	730	785,000	1,700,000,000
American Civil War (1861-1865) ..	1,350	656,000	7,000,000,000
Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871) ..	210	280,000	3,210,000,000
Boer War (1899-1902) ..	995	9,800	1,250,000,000
Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905) ..	548	160,000	2,100,000,000
1st World War (1914-1918) ..	1,563	9,818,000	186,233,637,097

Presidents, Legislative Assembly, India

Sir Frederick Whyte (1920-1925).	Sir Sanmukhan Chetty (1930-1933).
V. J. Patel (1925-1930).	Sir Abdur Rahim (1933-1945).
Sir Currimbhoy Ibrahim (1930).	G. V. Mavlankar (1946—)

INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS PRESIDENTS**(First Session, 1885)***Presidents*

Bombay (1885)—W. C. Bonnerji.
 Calcutta (1886)—Dadabhai Naoroji.
 Madras (1887)—Badruddin Tyabji.
 Allahabad (1888)—George Yule.
 Bombay (1889)—Sir W.

Wedderburn.

Calcutta (1890)—Sir P. Mehta.
 Nagpur (1891)—P. Ananda Charlu.
 Allahabad (1892)—W. C. Bonnerji.
 Lahore (1893)—Dadabhai Naoroji.
 Madras (1894)—Alfred Webb.
 Poona (1895)—S. N. Banerji.
 Calcutta (1896)—R. M. Siyani.
 Amraoti (1897)—C. Sankaran Nair.
 Madras (1898)—A. M. Bose.
 Lucknow (1899)—R. C. Dutt.
 Lahore (1900)—N. G.

Chandravarkar.

Calcutta (1901)—D. E. Wacha.
 Ahmedabad (1902)—S. N. Banerji.
 Madras (1903)—Lal Mohan Ghose.
 Bombay (1904)—Sir Henry Cotton.
 Benares (1905)—G. K. Gokhale.
 Calcutta (1906)—Dadabhai Naoroji.
 Surat (1907)—Rash Behari Ghose.
 Madras (1908)—Rash Behari Ghose.

Presidents

Lahore (1909)—Pt. M. M. Malaviya.
 Allahabad (1910)—Sir W.

Wedderburn.

Calcutta (1911)—Bishen N. Dar.
 Patna (1912)—R. N. Mudhokar.
 Karachi (1913)—Nawab Saiyed

Mahammad.

Madras (1914)—Bhupendra Nath
 Bose.

Bombay (1915)—S. P. Sinha.
 Lucknow (1916)—A. C. Majumdar.
 Calcutta (1917)—Dr. Annie Besant.
 Delhi (1918)—Pt. M. M. Malaviya.
 Bombay (Special (1918)—

Hassan Imam.

Amritsar (1919)—Pt. Motilal Nehru.
 Nagpur (1920)—C. Vijiaraghava-

chariar.

Calcutta (Special, 1920)—Lala
 Lajpat Rai.

Ahmedabad (1921)—Hakim
 Ajmar Khan.

Gaya (1922)—C. R. Das.
 Cocanada (1923)—Mahomed Ali.

Delhi (Special, 1923)—Abul
 Kalam Azad.

Congress Presidents—(concluded)

Belgaum (1924)—M. K. Gandhi.	Bombay (1934)—Rajendra Prasad.
Cawnpore (1925)—Mrs. Sarojini Naidu.	Lucknow (1935)—Pt. J. L. Nehru.
Gauhati (1926)—Srinivasa Iyengar.	Faizpur (1937)—Pt. J. L. Nehru.
Madras (1927)—Dr. M. A. Ansari.	Haripura, Gujrat (1938)—
Calcutta (1928)—Pt. Motilal Nehru.	Subhas Chandra Bose.
Lahore (1929) J. L. Pt. Nehru.	Tripuri (1939)—S. C. Bose (re-
Karachi (1931)—Sardar V. Patel.	signed)—afterwards Dr. Rajendra
Delhi (1932)—Seth Ranchhodlal.	Prasad.
Calcutta (1933)—Pt. M. M.	Ramgarh (1940)—A. K. Azad.
Malaviya.	

Political Parties in India**CONGRESS—**

Indian National Congress—Largest single political party embracing almost all nationalities with net work of organisations throughout the country. It is undoubtedly the most well-organised, disciplined party with the largest number of followers. By far the largest, best financed and most rigidly drilled party organisation in India.

OTHER PARTIES—

Congress Socialists—This party within the Congress occupies intermediate position between Right and Extreme Left. Many of its members disagree with a part of the Gandhian creed and would prefer to see more of socialist emphasis.

All India Muslim League—Started in the year 1906 by a group of well-to-do and aristocratic Moslems. It raised the cry of special Muslim interests from the beginning. Its creed is the establishment of independent States where Muslims are in majority.

All India Azad Muslim Conference—Party of Independent Muslims who support Congress programme.

Radical Democratic Party—New Party started by Mr. M. N. Roy opposed to Congress and eager to fight against Fascist powers.

Ahrar Party—Confined to well-to-do peasantry and the lower middle class mainly in Punjab, membership is confined to Moslems alone and combined economic grievances and religious passion to formulate their militant political policy. It accepts the political objective of the Congress.

Kishan Party—Is a peasant movement with Socialistic outlook. Its programme is the amelioration of the Indian peasants. Though separate from the Congress its programme is identical with Congress.

Communists—They are supporters of Russian Communism and are against Axis principle.

All India Hindu Mahasabha—Largest political organisation of the Hindus for the advancement of Hindu culture and polity—has acquired great strength due to its strong opposition to Communal Award. It seeks to promote safeguard, organise and consolidate Hindu interests.

- Anjuman-e Watan*—A Nationalist party of Baluchistan, allied to Congress.
- All India Muslim Majlis*—Progressive Nationalist Party of Muslims, opposed to Pakistan and supporters of Congress ideals.
- Krishak-Proja Party of Bengal*—bases its policy on the needs of local peasantry and is mainly confined among Moslems. It aims at agrarian revolution.
- Jamiat-ul-ulema-Hind*—An organisation of Moslem divines and religious teachers. It has always supported the political programme of the Congress. It is a supporter of independence on religious grounds.
- Khudai Khitmatgars*—Founded in 1929 Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan. Has adopted the creed of non-violence—social uplift of masses is also a prominent programme—Full supporter of Congress political programme. Its followers are also known as *Red Shirts*.
- Shia Political Conference*—represents Shia Moslems and is the most important minority among the supporters of the Congress.
- Momin Ansar Conference*—Demands safeguards from the Moslem League for their community. It has strong Congress leanings.
- Khaksar Party*—Semi-military organisation founded by Allama Mashruqi. Its members carry *belcha* or spade. Its object is to protect Islamic religion and tradition.
- Unionist Party of Punjab*—Started in 1919, mainly a Moslem organisation but has drawn into its fold a few Hindus on account of its agrarian interests.
- Justice Party of Madras*—The Party mainly consists of non-Brahmins opposed to all Congress programme—Full supporter of British Government.
- Akali Party*—Political organisation of the Sikhs who are supporters of the Congress.

INDIAN WINNERS OF VICTORIA CROSS

World War 1914—1918

- | | |
|--|--|
| Ishar Singh (<i>Naik</i> , 28th Punjabis) | Khudadad Khan (<i>Naik</i> , 129th Balu) Great War, 1914. |
| Waziristan, 1921. | |
| Mir Dost (<i>Subadar</i> , Coke's Rifles) | Kulbir Thapa (<i>Rifleman</i> , 23rd Gur. Rif.) Great War, 1915. |
| Great War, 1915. | |
| Shahamad Khan (<i>Naik</i> , 89 Punjabis) Great War, 1916. | Lala (<i>Lance-Naik</i> , 41st Dogras) Great War, 1916. |
| Chatta Singh (<i>Sepoy</i> , 9th Bhopal Inf.) Great War, 1916. | Govind Singh (<i>Lance-Dafadar</i> , 28th Lancers) Great War, 1918. |
| Darwan Singh Negi (<i>Naik</i> , 23rd Gur. Rif.) Great War, 1918. | Badlu Singh (<i>Ressaldar</i> , 14th Cavalry) 1918. |
| Karnabahadur Rana (<i>Naik</i> , 23rd Gur. Rif.) Great War, 1918. | Gobar Singh Negi (<i>Rifleman</i> , 39th Garhwals) Great War, 1915. |

The Great War 1939—1945

- 2nd Lt. Premindra Singh Bhagat (*Indian Engineers*) Middle East, 1941.
- Subedar Richpal Ram, 6th Rajputana Rifles (*Posthumous Award*) Middle East, 1941.

Victoria Cross Winners—(concluded)

- Havildar Prakash Singh, 8th Punjab Regiment, Arakan, 1943.
 Havildar-Major Chhelu Ram, 6th Rajputana Rifles (*Posthumous Award*), Tunisia, 1943.
 Lt.-Col. A. E. Cummings (12th Frontier Force Rifles, Indian Army), Malaya, 1942.
 Havildar Gajee Ghale, 5th Royal Gurkha Rifles, Chin Hills, Burma, 1943.
 Jem. Abdul Hafiz, 9th Jat. Regt. (*Posthumous Award*) Imphal, July, 1944.
 Subedar Lalbahadur Thapa, 2nd Gurkha Rifles, Tunisia, 1943.
 Rfn. Bhanbhogta Gurung, 2nd Gurkha Rifles, Burma, 1945.
 Rfn. Lacchiman Gurung, 8th Gurkha Rifles.
 Lt. Karamjit Singh, 4/15th Punjab Regiment (*Posthumous*), Burma.
 Sepoy Namdeo Jadav, 1st Marhatta Light Infantry, Italy.
 Sepoy Ali Haidar, 6th Frontier Force Rifles, Italy, 1945.
 Major F. G. Blaker, 9th Gurkha Rifles.
 Sepoy Kamal Ram, 8th Punjab Regt., Italy, 1944.
 Naik Nand Singh, 11th Sikh Regt., Arakan Front, 1944.
 Rfn. Ganju Lama, 7th Gurkha Rifles, Imphal, 1944.
 Naik Agan Singh Rai, 5th Royal Gurkha Rifles, Bishenpur, Silchar, 1944.
 Subedar Netra Bahadur Thapa, 5th Royal Gurkha Rifles (*Posthumous*), Bishenpur, 1944.
 Naik Yeshwant Ghadge, 5th Mahratta L. I. (*Posthumous*), Italy, 1944.
 Rfn. Tul Bahadur Pun, 6th Gurkha Rifles, Burma Front.
 Rfn. Sher Bahadur Thapa, 9th Gurkha Rifles (*Posthumous*), Italy, 1944.
 Jem. Ram Sarup Singh, 1st Punjab Regt., Burma (*Posthumous*).
 Sepoy Bhandari Ram, 10th Baluch Regt., Burma.
 Capt. M. Allmand, 6th Gurkha Rifles (*Posthumous*).
 Rfn. Thaman Gurung, 5th Royal Gurkha Rifles, Italy (*Posthumous*).
 Jem. Parkash Singh, 13th Frontier Force Rifles, Burma (*Posthumous*).
 L. Naik Sher Shah, 7/16th Punjab Regiment, Burma (*Posthumous*), 1945.
 Naik Gain Singh, 15th Punjab Regiment, Burma.
 Naik Fazal Din, 10th Baluch Regiment, Burma (*Posthumous*).
 Hav. Umrao Singh, Royal Indian Artillery, Burma.

Indian Order of Merit

- * Subedar Naiz Ali Khan (6th Rajput Rifles).
 * First Indian to receive this distinction (ranking and only to V.C.).

George Cross

- Naik Islamuddin, Jat Regiment (*Posthumous*).
 Subedar Subramanian, Madras Sappers & Miners (*Posthumous*).
 Sowar Ditta Ram, Central India Horse (*Posthumous*)

Indian Winners of Dist. Flying Cross

- W/c. A. M. Engineer, Bombay, R. I. A. F.
 W/c. K. K. Majumdar, Darjeeling, R. I. A. F.
 P/o. Suthankar, R. A. F. (won in England).
 Sq. Ldr. Pratab Chandra Lal, R. I. A. F.

First Indian D. S. O.

S/Ldr. Mehr Singh, I.A.F.

INDIAN FELLOWS OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY

A. Carsetji (1841).	Sir C. V. Raman.	Dr. H. J. Bhabha.
S. Ramanujam.	Dr. Birbal Sahani.	Sir Santiswarup Bhatnagar.
Sir J. C. Bose.	Dr. K. S. Krishnan.	Prof. S. Chandrasekhar
Dr. Meghnad Saha.		(America).
		Prof. P. C. Mahalanobis.

INDIANS IN THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

Sir Muncherjee Bhowanagree (Conservative).	Lord Sinha (House of Lords).
Dadabhai Naoroji (Liberal).	Lord Sinha, Second Baron of
Sapurji Saklatvala (Communist).	Raipur (House of Lords).

INDIAN PRIVY COUNCILLORS

Rt. Hon. Ameer Ali.	1934—Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru.
Sir B. C. Mitter.	1934—H. H. the Aga Khan.
1921—V. S. Srinivasa Sastri.	1936—Sir Akbar Hydari.
1926—Lord Sinha.	1936—Dr. M. R. Jayakar.
1930—D. F. Mulla.	1941—Sir C. Madhavan Nair.
1934—Sir Shadilal.	

INDIAN BARONETS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

Sir Cowasji Jehangir, 1908.	Sir Richard Temple.
Sir Hussein Ali Currimbhoy	Sir Jamsetji Jejeebhoy, 1857.
Ebrahim, 1910.	Sir Framji Dinshaw Petit, 1890.
Sir Victor Sassoon.	Sir Chinubhai Madhowlal, 1913.
Sir Kenneth Gibson.	

Indian Peer of the British Realm

Sinha, Aroon Kumar (b. 1887)
Heir—Hon'ble Sudhindra Sinha (b. 1921).

POLITICAL TERMS

Amnesty—An act of government granting exemption from criminal prosecution and punishment.

Autocracy—A form of government in which political power is absolute and unlimited.

Arab League—is a bloc of seven independent Arab States in the middle East formed in 1944. States are Syria, Lebanon, Egypt, etc. for joint unity of action in all political matters such as opposition of Zionist infiltration in Palestine, etc.

Black Market—illegal market for evasion of rationing.

Blitzkrieg—lightning like offensive by massed air forces, tanks, mobile, artillery and mechanized infantry in close co-ordination.

Authoritarian—A term denoting a more or less dictatorial system of Government.

Axis—an alliance between two or more major powers.

Armistice—Agreement between combatants to cease fighting. It may be either temporary for the purpose of removing the wounded or burying the dead or it may be a preliminary to a general peace.

Anarchism—a political doctrine standing for the abolition of every organised authority and state machinery and the creation of stateless society instead. The anarchists hold that every form of government tantamounts to tyranny.

Blockade—a term used in international law for the prevention of goods entering or leaving an enemy country by land or sea. Neutral states are affected most by a blockade by sea, for if their ships try to approach the ports of a blockaded country, they and their cargoes are liable to be confiscated by the blockading force.

Balance of Power—This phrase means the preservation specially in Europe of an equality of strength between countries or groups of countries. The idea is that no one country shall become too powerful for the safety of the others.

Bourgeois—Name given usually in contempt to the middle-class, specially those in commerce as opposed to proletariat—the propertyless class who lives without any property throughout and living only through the sale of their labour. This meaning was carried to extreme lengths by followers of communism.

Bicameral System—That form of government which consists of two separate chambers or houses, the concurrence of both ordinarily being essential to the enactment of legislation.

Bloc—means an association of legislative members or of political workers of different parties, formed to support a certain measure or ministry. A French word meaning 'mass' or 'group'.

Buffer State—a small state established or preserved between two greater states to prevent direct clashes between them.

Bolshevism—Accepts the doctrine that an irreconcilable antagonism exists between the propertied class or bourgeois and the property-less workers. It invites as inevitable and necessary class war, the object of which is the destruction of all classes, except the proletariat, in whose interest and by whom future society will be organised and governed on a communistic basis.

Bolshevik—A member of the extreme wing of the Russian Socialist party which seized power in Russia after Revolution of March, 1917.

Bureaucracy—Government by an elaborate system of administrative departments and officials which generally tend to become unwieldy and laborious in its operation. It produces red tape or over-systematization. Its most frequently charged defects are its rigidity, conservatism and spirit of routine.

Coalition—is a combination of political parties having different or

opposed interests, effected with the object of carrying through or resisting a particular policy.

Consul—is a public officer authorised by the State to manage commercial affairs of its subjects in a foreign country.

Contraband—Primarily articles sent from neutral to belligerent country in time of war for military and naval use. Under generally recognised laws of war, merchandise may be seized and confiscated if taken upon the high seas or within enemy territory.

Conscription—A system of compulsory enrolment for naval or military service.

Communism—Represents revolutionary socialism, hostile to the slow progress or gradual reform and progressive compromise. Communism believes in the dictatorship of the proletariat for a transitional period, after which a free society would come into existence in which everybody would contribute to the common weal according to his capacity and receive a reward according to his need—Communism proclaims the equality of all peoples and races and believes in the final establishment of an international order.

Collective Security—means that all countries should together guarantee the security of each individual country.

Coup D'etat—a sudden change of government by force effected by holders of government or military power.

Constituent Assembly—is an assembly convened for the purpose of drawing up a constitution, but it only comes and this is the vital point—after there is a breakdown in the existing machinery of Government and a change has been brought about in the *status quo*.

Camouflage—it is the art and science of concealment applied to warfare. In the last war, hiding all objects of military importance became necessary and many ingenious methods were adopted for concealing vehicles, buildings, guns and so on.

Condominium—A common rule of two or more nations in a territory such as Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

Conscientious objector—Person who refuses to enlist in the military service on moral or religious grounds.

Caucus—A meeting or conference of members of a political party or group to determine upon the candidate or policy to be supported in an ensuing election or other political contest.

Civil Disobedience—Refusal to co-operate with government without however using violence.

Comintern—is the abbreviation of Communist International and refers to wide-world Communist Organisation, the headquarters of which was Moscow. This has been recently dissolved by Stalin.

Democracy—"Government of the people, by the people, and for the people"—*Lincoln*. It is distinguished from monarchy. It is based upon freely elected representative institutions and upon an executive responsible to the people. It is based upon the fundamental assumption of the equality of all individuals and of their equal right to life, liberty (includ-

ing the liberty of thought and expression) and the pursuit of happiness. As the term is used today, it does not mean direct government by the people itself through a popular primary assembly. It means indirect form of popular government through popularly elected Parliament, representative of the people.

Diarchy—Government by two elements in the State.

Dichards—extremely orthodox and unbending members of a party, it was specially applied to the members of the Conservative party.

Dictatorship—Control of Government or ruling power by a minority or by an individual. In ancient Rome, the dictator was recognised as a ruler. In modern times, Dictatorship flared up in Europe after the World War. Mussolini in Italy and Hitler in Germany seized power unconstitutionally but with the support of the people.

Dominion Status—The expression refers to the constitutional status enjoyed by the self-governing Dominions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Eire and members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. These dominions "are autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, united by a common allegiance to the Crown."

Diplomacy—Art of negotiation specially between countries. Each country possesses a diplomatic service to carry on negotiations with foreign countries. Some diplomats such as ambassadors, ministers, envoys, etc., go abroad and live in a foreign capital to keep in touch with the Government. Their business is to watch over interests of their country and to send regular reports upon all that concerns it.

Extra-Territoriality—is a term for immunities enjoyed by certain persons, properties, or places from the jurisdiction of the State in which they are situate.

Embargo—Government order preventing ships leaving port.

Extradition—Surrender of a fugitive from justice by one country or state of the authorities of another.

Ersatz—German word for 'substitute' used to denote artificial substitutes for raw materials and foodstuffs lacking in Germany.

Espionage—A French word which expresses more than English word spying, it implies an organised system.

Fascist—Nationalist Party of Italy.

Falangists—Spanish fascists with a programme similar to that of Italian fascism.

Federation—A system of government wherein political powers of the state are constitutionally distributed between national Government and the local Governments of members units which are called 'States', 'Provinces', etc. The division of powers between Federal government and separate states is laid down in the constitution and varies between one another.

Fifth Column—Secret supporters of the enemy within defence lines.

Fascism—is a term derived from Latin *Fasces*—the bundle of birch rods bound together by a red thong and containing an axe in the middle, which was carried by Lictors before the higher Roman Magistrates as a symbol of executive authority. The term Fascism is applied to the principles and organisation of an Italian Nationalist Political Party, founded and led by Signor Mussolini which in October, 1922 assumed control of the Government of Italy. The principles of Fascism began in a strong sense of the need and the value of executive authority and therefore in opposition to Parliamentary Democracy. The basis of a single and powerful executive authority was sought in a single party, which permitted no other parties by its side, which filled the legislature with its adherents and which made its leader and his associates the mainspring of the action of the State. The single party system was thus an essential element of Fascism. It sought to control the whole body politic and whole of its range of life by one principle of National Unity and National Power. Fascism was also "corporative" and sought to institute the corporative State. It believed that masters and men in each branch of production should be organised in a joint corporation or guild and should regulate through that guild their common effort of production. The Party is now extinct after Italy's defeat in world war II.

Four Freedoms—as enunciated by President Roosevelt are as follows—(1) Freedom of Speech, (2) Freedom of Religion, (3) Freedom from Want and (4) Freedom from Fear.

Guerilla—Irregular warfare. Guerilla warfare consists in attacks upon a regular army by bands of irregular troops, usually the inhabitants of an invaded country.

Imperialism—The desire on the part of the civilized nations to rule over the weaker or backward peoples, like Negroes of Africa or the races of Asia is called Imperialism.

Isolationism—a political opinion of U. S. A. Isolationists, who advocate non-intervention in continental or east continental politics.

International—Socialist movement in which socialists from many countries are united. There have been three such movements or Internationals, and each has held several Congress. *First International*—accepted a programme drawn up by Karl Marx and has lasted from 1866 to 1874. *Second International* in which there was trade union element was organised in 1889. It sought to compass the aims of congresses between 1882 and 1930. *The Third International* was organised in Moscow and was revolutionary in its aims. It declared in favour of establishing communism by force.

Lease & Lend—A measure of the U. S. Government passed in March, 1941 empowering the President to sell, exchange, transfer, lease or lend any defence article to any government whose defence the president regards essential to the defence of U. S. A.

Lebensraum—German word for 'living space', a new word for German imperialism. It is used to stress that population is too dense and to claim such territories as agricultural regions towards Black Sea and colonies overseas.

Lockout—refusal by employers to re-employ the workers on strike.

Marxism—the Socialist doctrine following the theories of Karl Marx (Germany). His ideas are that all wealth is produced by Labour and should go to labour, and that as this leaves nothing for the capitalist, who can therefore never accept the system, the worker must prepare for a class-war in which capitalism will be destroyed. An essence of his theories is that history is largely determined by economic forces.

Mandate—a system of colonial administration adopted after the last war for the former German colonies and certain Turkish territories. The rights to the territories were transferred to the League of Nations which entrusted their administration to certain allied powers.

Moratorium—A period during which no business engagements are completed or debts or liabilities enforced. A moratorium is declared by the government in times of a financial crisis.

Military Attache—In time of war neutral powers often send officers to be attached to the field staff of each belligerent for the purpose of making independent reports to their government.

National Recovery Administration—popularly known as NRA, the bureaus, committees, supervisors etc., brought into being to carry out the provision of National Industrial Recovery Act passed by American Congress on June 13, 1933. Declaring a national emergency to exist, caused by economic depression and unemployment, the act empowered the president of U. S. A. to establish codes of fair competition, with regulations as to wages and hours of labour and wide powers of limitation of production, price control etc. An extensive programme of public works was also provided for.

Naturalisation—The word is used for the admission of a person of foreign nationality into that of a country he desires to adopt. An oath of allegiance has to be taken.

Nationalisation—Taking management by the state of trades and industries etc., with or without compensation; change from private to state ownership.

Nazi—member of the German fascist party organised under the leadership of Adolf Hitler.

Neutrality—In international law, condition of a state abstaining from participating in a war between other states and maintaining an impartial attitude in its dealings with the belligerent states, with the recognition of the impartiality by the warring states.

Popular Front—a political collaboration of communists, socialists, and other democratic parties against Fascism, put forward by Communist International in 1935.

Prize Court—This is a court of law set up in time of war to decide whether a ship and its cargo captured by the navy is a lawful prize or not. If it is decided that a captured ship is enemy property or a cargo is contraband, they are sold and the proceeds are distributed to all members of the navy at the end of the war.

Privy Purse—In England allowance from civil list for personal use of the Sovereign.

Proportionate Representation—is the method used in an election by which the votes are so counted that each party has representation in the elective body in proportion to its strength.

Plebiscite—An expression of the will of the whole people, sought in ratification or disapproval of a particular measure, already decided upon but regarding which their elected representatives hesitate to act. The word comes from the Latin *plebs*, the common people.

Picketing—Walking up and down in front of a place of business in an effort to keep other persons from patronising or working in it.

Pacifism—opposition to war or military force in any form. Pacifists believe that all international disputes should be settled by arbitration. The various movements toward world peace are not necessarily wholly pacifistic, as they often advocate defensive war and oppose only aggressive war.

Progrom—A Russian word which means 'devastation'; it is used to denote anti-Jewish outrages.

Total War—denotes the present form of war in which the distinction between combatants and non-combatants are fast disappearing.

Public utilities—Electric light, gas, telephone, street car and other services of use to all members of the community.

Proletariat—The wage-earning class of a community collectively. Socialists distinguished this class from the capitalists and middle classes often termed *bourgeois*.

Quislings—traitors, named after the Norwegian traitor, Major Quisling, who betrayed his country to the Germans.

Radicals—Persons of political views quite different from those held by the majority of persons who, in politics, are in favour of sweeping reforms or other changes in government or laws.

Republic—State in which the sovereign power resides in the electorate, which is the body of the people having a voice in electing representatives to rule them. There is no hereditary sovereign to rule.

Right and Left—In the Legislative bodies, it is the fixed habit of the conservative groups and parties to seat themselves on the right hand side of the Speaker or President and of the liberal or radical element to seat themselves on the left. The term 'centre' is used for middle parties or groups.

Regent—One who rules on behalf of a sovereign, when a sovereign is a minor, or is insane, or in any other way incapable of ruling, it is usual to appoint a regent to act for him.

Racketeer—One who levies blackmail on industry by threats or interference.

Reparations—Payments or other amends made for damages caused by the aggressor in a war.

Referendum—Bringing a proposed law before the people as a whole for decision.

Saboteur—One guilty of destructive acts at home to aid the enemies of his country.

Syndicalism—A movement to secure a transfer of the means production and distribution to industrial workers.

Self-determination—The principle that every distinct people or nation ought to have the right to determine the question of its independence, its form of government and its political destiny.

Socialism—A principle whereby private ownership of land and all other 'productive capital' would be extinguished in favour of ownership by the state.

Soviet—The republics which from the Greater Russia over which Stalin rules as dictator are known as Soviets. The word being Russian for Council. It became popular in Russia after the revolution of 1905 when there was a plan to set up a representative system in which votes would be given only to workers and soldiers. The Soviet system is a system of delegates sent from small representatives until there are series of councils representing complete provinces which body or council to form a bigger body for a bigger area, and so on, send delegates to a Congress.

Third Reich—It used to denote Nazi regime in Germany. Medieval Germany was the 'First Empire'; Hohenzollern Empire (1871—1918) was the 'Second Empire'; Hitler's Germany was the Third Empire or Reich.

Tariff—Is used to designate the scale of customs duties imposed upon foreign products entering home territory.

Third Degree—In political circles, the severe treatment of a prisoner in order to extract confession. The severity of the third degree is open to question, since it is conducted in secret.

Totalitarian—Means single party, dictatorial system of government. It is based on the theory of the 'totality of the state' which extends sphere of the state influence over the whole life, private as well as public.

Veto—Executive refusal to approve an Act particularly a legislative enactment.

Whip—A member of a political party assigned to the task of rounding up members of that party to ensure their votes and to hold them in line with party policy.

White paper—is a report issued by government to give information.

Zionism—Jewish nationalist movement. In 1897 the Zionist Organisation was established to create for the Jewish people a home in Palestine secured by public law, but not till 1921 was the definite step taken of setting up in Palestine a national home for the Jews.

SALARIES OF PARLIAMENT MEMBERS

Great Britain	£600 per annum.
United States (<i>Federal</i>)	£2,000 per annum.
France	£550 per annum.
Germany	619 Marks per month.
Italy	15,000 Lire per annum.
Japan	3,000 Yen per annum.
Norway	£300 per annum.
South Africa	£400 per annum.
Egypt	480 Egyptian £ per annum.
Sweden	£140 per session.
G. B., Leader of the Opposition	£2,000 per year.
Switzerland	£1 5s. per day.
Netherlands	£420 per annum.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Wafd—The nationalist party of Egypt.

Zionists—The supporters of movement to restore Jewish State in Palestine.

Kuomintang—The Chinese Nationalist Party formed originally by the followers of Sun-Yet-sen.

Falangists—The Spanish Fascist Party led by General Franca.

Fascist—Italian National Party led by Mussolini but now eclipsed due to the downfall of Mussolini.

Comintern—the short name of Communist International.

I. L. P.—Independent Labour party in England—a small semi-radical group in British Labour with a Marxist programme—stands between Labour Party and Communism.

Communist Party—was the world organisation of Marxist Socialists operating through branch national parties very loosely affiliated to the Communist International or 'Comintern', but now abolished by the order of Stalin.

Fianna Fail—De Valera's radical Nationalist party in Ireland.

Conservative Party—The right wing party of the British Parliament, successor of the Tory Party of the 18th. and 19th. centuries. National and Imperial feeling are the themes of its party-politics.

Labour Party—It is the British Socialist Party composed of Trade Union, Socialist and Co-operative Societies which came into official existence in 1906. It aims bringing about, by legislation, changes which will benefit the poorer classes.

Liberal Party—Progressive Party of England, stands for free trade, was known as Whig Party in the 18th and 19th centuries, once a great political force, but now an insignificant party.

Popular Front Party—Political Party in different countries composed of communists, socialists and other democratic parties against Fascism.

Democratic Party—one of the two great parties in U.S.A. It is the liberal party of U.S.A.

Republican Party—A great Political Party of U.S.A. The party is largely isolationist and is more right-wing of the two parties.

Isolationists—Political Parties in different countries mainly in U.S.A. who advocate non-intervention in and non-interference in international affairs.

Common Wealth Party—A new political party of England led by Sir R. Acland with progressive ideas.

FORMS OF GOVERNMENT

Country

Afghanistan	..	Constitutional Monarchy.
Albania	..	Republic
Argentina	..	Federal Republic.
Belgium	..	Constitutional, representative and hereditary monarchy.
Brazil	..	Dictatorship.
Bulgaria	..	Constitutional Monarchy.
China	..	Republic.
Denmark	..	Constitutional Monarchy.
Egypt	..	Constitutional Monarchy.
France	..	Republican State.
Great Britain	..	Limited Monarchy with Democratic Constitution.
Greece	..	Republic
Hungary	..	Republic
Iran	..	Constitutional Monarchy.
Japan	..	Constitutional Monarchy.
Mexico	..	Democracy.
Nepal	..	Military Oligarchy of Nobles.
Norway	..	Constitutional Hereditary Monarchy.
Netherlands	..	Constitutional Hereditary Monarchy.
Portugal	..	Republican Government.
Spain	..	Totalitarian State.
Sudan	..	Condominium.
Sweden	..	Constitutional Monarchy.
Switzerland	..	Federal Republic.
Siam	..	Limited Monarchy.
Tibet	..	Theocracy.
Turkey	..	Republic.
U. S. A.	..	Federal Republic.
U. S. S. R.	..	Communist State with federal form of Government under Dictator.
Yugoslavia	..	Republic

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The League of Nations is an association of states, created in accordance with a covenant of the Peace Conference at Paris, adopted April 28, 1919, for lessening the likelihood of war, for encouraging the adoption of the principle of arbitration, for the administration of conquered or surrendered colonies (known as mandates), and for promoting international co-operation on world problems. It came into existence on January 10, 1920. In accordance with the covenant as amended, the League is made up of (1) An Assembly, in which each State has one vote; (2) a Council consisting of five representatives from the leading States (permanent members—France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, and since 1926, Germany) and representatives of nine other non-permanent members three being chosen annually for a term of three years, and (3) a permanent headquarters or Secretariate at Geneva, Switzerland. By the covenant both the assembly and the council may deal "with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or affecting the peace of the world" but the assembly meets once a year (in September) and the council from time to time as occasion may require. Neither body is definitely responsible to the other, the two together elect the judges of the Permanent Court of International Justice. Since 1920, the League has settled many minor disputes between nations, has been a strong influence toward peace in more serious differences, and has brought about co-operation of great international importance in many economic, social, humanitarian, and labour questions. In view of the establishment of United Nations Organisation, the League will be liquidated this year.

INDIAN INFORMATION

Indian Provinces

<i>Area</i> (sq. miles)		<i>Population</i>	<i>Area</i> (sq. miles)		<i>Population</i>
Madras	126,166	49,341,810	Orissa	32,198	8,728,544
Bombay	76,443	20,849,840	Sind	48,136	4,535,008
Bengal	77,442	60,306,525	Ajmer-Merwara	2,400	583,693
U. P.	106,247	55,020,617	Andamans &		
Punjab	99,089	28,418,819	Nicobars	3,143	33,768
Bihar	69,745	36,340,151	Baluchistan	54,456	501,631
C. P. & Berar	98,575	16,813,584	Coorg	1,593	168,726
Assam	54,951	10,204,733	Delhi	574	917,939
N. W. F. P.	14,263	3,038,067	Panth Piploda	25	5,267

Population of Indian Cities

Calcutta	2,108,981	Agra	284,149	Jubbulpore	178,339
Bombay	1,489,883	Benares	263,100	Jaipur	175,810
Madras	777,481	Allahabad	260,630	Patna	175,706
Hyderabad	739,159	Poona	258,197	Surat	171,443

Lahore ..	671,659	Bangalore ..	248,334	Meerut ..	169,290
Ahmedabad ..	591,267	Madura ..	239,144	Trichinopoly ..	159,556
Delhi ..	521,849	Dacca ..	213,218	Baroda ..	153,301
Cawnpur ..	487,324	Sholapur ..	212,620	Mysore ..	150,540
Amritsar ..	391,010	Srinagar ..	207,787	Jamshedpur ..	148,711
Lucknow ..	387,177	Indore ..	203,695	Ajmer ..	147,258
Howrah ..	379,292	Bareilly ..	192,688	Multan ..	142,768
Karachi ..	359,492	Lashkar ..	182,492	Moradabad ..	142,414
Nagpur ..	301,957	Rawalpindi ..	181,169		

INDIAN NATIONAL FLAGS

Congress Flag : Tricolour of green, white and orange.

Muslim League Flag : Bright green and is embossed with a white crescent and star, the emblem of Islam.

Flag of Hindu Mahasabha : Deep orange and is embossed in crimson, with a sword, a cobra entwined with lotus flowers and the Hindu Swastika.

Flag of Indian Communist Party : Red Flag embossed with hammer and sickle.

DISTANCES BY RAIL

From	Bombay	Calcutta	Madras
Agra ..	835	790	1239
Ahmedabad ..	306	1328	1100
Allahabad ..	848	512	1484
Ambala ..	984	1025	1481
Bangalore ..	745	1245	222
Benares ..	928	429	1461
Bombay ..	—	1223	794
Calcutta ..	1223	—	1032
Cawnpore ..	840	630	1602
Dacca ..	1492	269	1301
Darjeeling ..	1611	388	1420
Delhi ..	845	902	1361
Gwalior ..	763	1000	1166
Hyderabad (Deccan) ..	491	987	373
Jubbulpore ..	616	733	1263
Karachi ..	988	1571	2000
Lahore ..	1158	1199	1668
Lucknow ..	885	354	1386
Madras ..	794	1032	—
Nagpur ..	520	703	682
Peshawar ..	1446	1463	1956
Poona ..	119	1342	675
Rawalpindi ..	1338	1355	1847
Simla ..	1301	1342	1798

Districts in India

Madras	..	26	U. P.	..	48	Assam	..	12	Coorg	..	1
Bombay	..	21	Punjab	..	29	N. W. F. P.	5	Delhi	..	1	
Sind	..	7	Bihar	..	16	Baluchistan	6	Andamans &			
Bengal	..	28	C.P. & Berar	22	Ajmer-			Nicobars		2	
			Orissa	..	5	Merwara	1				

PRINCIPAL DECORATIONS AND MEDALS

Orders of the Star of India (1861)—consists of Extra Knight Grand Commander (G.C.S.I.), Honorary Knight Grand Commander (G.C.S.I.), Honorary Knight Commander (K.C.S.I.), Honorary Companion (C.S.I.), Knight Grand Commander (G.C.S.I.), Knight Commander (K.C.S.I.), Companion (C.S.I.)

Orders of the Indian Empire (1877)—consists of Extra Knight Grand Commander (G.C.I.E.), Honorary Knight Grand Commander (G.C.I.E.), Honorary Knight Commander (K.C.I.E.), Honorary Companion (C.I.E.), Companion (C.I.E.).

The Imperial Order of the Crown of India—C.I. (Jan. 1, 1878)—for female relatives of Indian Princes or of persons who have held conspicuous offices in connection with India.

Victoria Cross (1856)—For conspicuous bravery, is worn before all other decorations. In 1911 the right to receive the Cross was extended to Indian soldiers.

George Cross (1940)—instituted by King George VI in Sept. 1940. It ranks immediately after Victoria Cross.

Military Cross—M.C. (1915). To Captains, Lieutenants and 1st class Warrant Officers for acts of distinction or gallantry in the field.

Distinguished Flying Cross—D.F.C. (1918) is a medal for Officers and Warrant Officers of R.A.F. for acts of gallantry when flying in active operations against the enemy.

D. S. O.—Distinguished Service Order is a decoration awarded for special services in action to Commissioned Officers of the Royal Navy, Army & R.A.F.

Distinguished Flying Medal—To non-Commissioned Officers and men of R.A.F. for valour, courage and devotion.

Indian Order of Merit (1873)—A reward for personal bravery, to Indian Officers and men. It has two divisions—civil and military.

Kaisar-i-Hind Medal—1st Class, Gold; 2nd Class, Silver—1900—a reward for any person for useful service in or for India.

The George Medal—G.M., 1940 is a recognition of civilian bravery.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal (1907)—A reward for both Commissioned and non-Commissioned Officers of the regular or other forces in India.

Indian Police Medal for Gallantry.

Indian Police Medal for Meritorious Service.

Indian Long Service and Good Conduct Medal—For Europeans of the Indian Army.

Indian Meritorious Service Medal (I.M.S.M., 1888)—for Europeans of Indian Army.

Indian Long Service and Good Conduct Medal—for Ind. Army.

Indian Meritorious Service Medal—for Indian Army.

Imperial Service Order (1902)—Restricted to members of the administrative or clerical branches of Civil Service.

Order of British India—It consists of two classes. The order is conferred to those from among the active list in the armed forces for long, faithful and honourable service.

Distinguished Service Cross—for all naval and marine officers.

Distinguished Conduct Medal—for non-commissioned officers and men of the Army.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal (I.D.S.M., 1907)—for distinguished service.

King's Police Medal (1909)—“only for acts of exceptional courage and skill or conspicuous devotion to duty” to officers and men of any recognised Police Force or Fire Brigade in U. K., India and British Dominions.

Notable Engineering Schemes of India

Lloyds Barrage, Sukkur Sind—The greatest irrigation scheme in the world. It was constructed at the cost of over 20 crores of rupees to irrigate the dry lands of Sind where annual rainfall is not more than 5 inches a year.

Lloyd Dam, Bhatghar, Bombay—The largest dam in volume hitherto constructed and contains 21½ million cubic feet of masonry. The dam 5,300 ft. in length.

Mettur Dam on the Canvery River—5,300 ft. long, 176 ft. high. It has a volume of 1,825,000 cubic ft. The water storage capacity is 93·500 million cubic ft.

Nizamsagar Dam—Second largest dam in India. It stretches across the river Manjira, a tributary of Godavari for two miles with a motorable road 14 ft. wide along the top. It is one of the largest gravity dams of the world.

Pykara Hydro-Electric System—is the first one of its kind in South India.

Elevated Reservoir at Tallah, Calcutta—is considered as the biggest in the world. It has a capacity of 9 million gallons. It consists of a steel tank 16 ft. deep, 321 ft. square supported on steel column. The height from the ground level to the top of the tank is 110 ft. It was constructed in 1865.

Howrah Bridge—was opened on Feb. 28, 1943. It has 26,000 tons of steel. The cost of construction was approximately Rs. 3,30,00,000. The length of the main span, centre to centre of main piers, is 1,500 ft. While the total or over all length is 2,150 ft. The over all height of towers above ground level is approximately 300 ft. It is the third largest cantilever span bridge in the world.

Damodar Valley Multi-Purpose Scheme—Preliminary work on the Rs. 55 crore multi-purpose scheme for the development of the Damodar Valley is in progress. Some 800 military personnel comprising two railway units have been detailed at the Maithon site on the Barakar river. They are engaged in general survey, rock drilling and soil testing work to help designing properly the dam at the place. Meanwhile, Sir Girja Sankar Bajpai, India's Agent-General in Washington, is contacting U.S. experts with a view to arranging as soon as possible a technical mission from there to advise the Government of India on the type of

dams to be built on the first two sites at Maithon and Aiyar (on the Damodar river). The Central, the Bengal and the Bihar Governments having agreed on the final designs of the dams and estimates of expenditure on the project, the construction of the first dam at Maithon is expected to begin at the end of this year. The Central Technical Power Board which is working on alternative designs for the construction of this dam, is experiencing a dearth of trained men. The Damodar multi-purpose development scheme is designed to benefit 5,000,000 people in the valley and another 2,500,000 in neighbouring towns and cities including Calcutta.

Artillery Salutes Fired in India

Imperial Salutes (when Sovereign is present) ..	101	Convoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiaries ..	17
Royal Salute (on the anniversary of Birth, Accession, Coronation, Birth day of Consort of Sovereign, Birth day of Queen Mary, Proclamation day) ..	31	Lt. Governors of His Majesty's Colonies ..	15
Viceroy & Governor-General of India ..	31	Plenipotentiaries and Envoys ..	15
Members of the Royal Family ..	31	Maharaja of Bhutan ..	15
Foreign Sovereigns and members of their families (including Maharaja of Nepal and Sultan of Muskat) ..	21	Governor of Damaun ..	9
Sultan of Zanzibar ..	21	Governor of Dieu ..	9
Ambassadors ..	19	Governor of Presidencies & Provinces of India ..	17
Governor-General of Portuguese India ..	19	Air Officer Commanding-in-Chief holding the rank of Vice-Marshal ..	13
Prime Minister of Nepal ..	19	Residents First Class ..	13
Governor-General of French Settlements of India ..	17	Residents Second Class ..	13
Governors of H. M's Colonies ..	17	Chief Commissioner, Andaman & Nicobar Islands ..	13
		Commander-in-Chief of India (if Field-Marshal) ..	19
		C-in-C. (if General) ..	17
		Political Agents ..	11
		Naval Commander-in-Chief East Indies Squadron ..	15

Flag Officer, Commanding,	Major-General	Commanding	
R. I. N. (if Vice-Admiral)	15 District	13	
G. Os. C-in-C. Commands	15		
Flag Officer, Commanding	Major-General & Brigadiers		
R. I. N. (if Rear-Admiral)	13 Commanding Brigades	11	

HILL STATIONS

Nainital—Hill sanatorium in Kumaun Hills, is the summer headquarters of U. P. Government, picturesquely situated on the shores of a beautiful lake. A favourite summer resort. Altitude 6,400 ft. It is reached from Kathgodam on the R. & K. Railway 22 miles distant.

Mussoorie—Is a hill sanatorium, on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, 14 miles from Dehra Dun. From Dehra Dun to Mussoorie by motor cars. Altitude 6,600 ft. above sea level. Nearest railway station is Dehra Dun.

Mount Abu—Above 115 miles from Ahmedabad and 17 miles from Abu Road on the B. B. C. I. Ry. The range is about 50 miles in circumference. The climate is very healthy and delightfully cool. The average temperature is 60°. There is a motor service from Abu Road to Mount Abu. Altitude 3,800 ft. above sea level.

Almora—In Kumaun Hills. Altitude 5,500 ft. above sea level. Mean annual rainfall 45.55 inches; fine views of snows. Almora to Pindari glacier is 6 marches. Nearest railway station is Kathgodam.

Bangalore—The cantonment is the largest in South India. Altitude 3,000 ft. above sea level.

Coonoor—Altitude 6,740 ft. above sea level. Nearest railway station is Coonoor. It is miles from Ootacamund by rail.

Gulmarg—is at a distance of 28 miles from Srinagar, is an ideal summer resort, is also a centre of winter sports.

Dalhousie—Altitude 7,687 ft. above sea level and 51 miles from Pathankot railway station (N. W. R.) reached by motor road.

Lansdowne—Is situated in Garhwal about half way between Mussoorie and Nainital. It commands a wonderful view of snows, the Badrinath block being nearest. It is reached by E. I. R. to Kotdwara *via* Najibabad junction and there is good service of motor cars, a distance of 26 miles; altitude 6,060 feet.

Darjeeling—Summer headquarters of the Government of Bengal. Altitude 7,168 ft. above sea level, magnificent snow views of Mount Everest (29,001 ft.) and Kanchanjunga (28,104 ft.). It is the centre of a large tea district.

Kalimpong—Hill station near Darjeeling. Nearest railway station is Siliguri, 4,000 ft. high.

Mahabaleswar—Principal hill station of the Bombay Presidency and summer retreat of the Bombay Government. Altitude 4,500 ft. above sea level. Nearest railway station is Poona, 75 miles.

Murree—Altitude 7,700 ft. above sea level. Situated 39 miles along the motor-road from Rawalpindi to Srinagar. Nearest railway station is Rawalpindi.

Kasauli—A cantonment and Convalescent Depot in the Simla District situated on the crest of a hill overlooking Kalka Valley, 22 miles from Kalka by motor road. Famous for Pasteur Institute, altitude 6,200 feet.

Kulu Valley—on the north of Simla and east of Kangra. The valley is about 4,700 ft high. The main route is *via* Pathankot.

Matheran—Nearest mill station of Bombay. It is only 2,650 ft. high.

Panchmarhi—in Hosangabad, C. P. is 32 miles from Pipariya Station on G. I. P. Ry. summer resort of the Government of C. P. The maximum height is 4,500 ft.

Kadaikanal—A hill station in Southern India on the upper range of the Pulney Hills in the Madura District. It is 7,000 ft. above the sea level. The nearest railway station is Kadaikanal Road on S. I. R.

Ootacamund—Summer headquarters of the Government of Madras. Altitude 7,490 ft. above sea level. Mean annual day temperature is 57-50°F.

Quetta—Headquarters of Baluchistan. Altitude 5,500 ft. above sea level. Very severe winter and hot summer. Nearest railway station is Quetta.

Ranchi—Altitude 2,100 ft. above sea level. Mean annual day temperature is 74.9°F. Nearest railway station is Ranchi.

Shillong—Headquarters of the Assam Government. Altitude 4,987 ft. above sea level. Average temperature in midsummer rarely reaches 80°F. Cherrapunji, 30 miles south of Shillong holds the world record for rainfall, average 426 inches per annum (in 1861 the rainfall at Cherrapunji was 905 inches). Nearest railway station is Pandu (68 miles).

Simla—Summer headquarters of the Government of India and of the Punjab government. Altitude 7,057 ft. above sea level. It is reached by mountain railway connecting Kalka and Simla. Mean temperature is 55°F, and annual rainfall is 70".

Srinagar (Kashmir)—Capital of Kashmir State. Altitude 5,250 ft. above sea level. Mean annual day temperature is 55°F. The best period to visit Kashmir is April to November. Nearest railway station is Rawalpindi, 196 miles. It is situated on the river Jhelum and is easily approached by motor roads *via* Rawalpindi, Jammu and Havelian Railway Stations.

PLACES OF INTEREST IN INDIA

Abu—Is a hill station between Bombay and Delhi, at a height of above 3,800 ft.—Nearby is Dilwara, famous for wonderful Jain Temples noted for their interior marble work.

Agra—Famous for Taj Mahal and Agra fort which contain all the glories of Mughal Empire, such as Dewani Khas, Moti Masjid, Jasmine Tower, Dewan-i-am, also tomb Akbar at Sekandra and Itmud-ud-Dowla.

Ajanta—A village in Nizam's Dominions is reached by motor from Jalgaon Station on G. I. P. Rly.—It is 38 miles from the station, celebrated

for cave hermitages and halls in a wooded and rugged ravine. There are 32 caves and they date back to 231 B.C. and they are famous for paintings on the walls.

Amritsar—Famous for Sikh golden temple. It is also famous for gold and silver thread, carpets, silks and *pashmina materials*. It derived its name from the sacred tank on which the golden temple is situated. The town stands on the main route of the N. W. Railway.

Ajmer—A City of antiquity and celebrity. Ana Sagar² Lake is famous for its picturesque surroundings. The place is famous for Dargah of Saint Khwaja M. Chisti in whose memory a great fair is held every year. At seven miles distance, there is Pushkar, the most sacred lake of India.

Benares—Sacred City of the Hindus, contains numerous temples. The view of the ghats is magnificent, close by is the famous Hindu University. Six miles from the city is the Sarnath which contains the finest Buddhist ruins in India.

Chittorgarh—Famous for the Tower of Victory—contains wonderful Rajput ruins. It is the old capital of Sisodhiya Rajputs, the proud descendants of the sun-god who now rule at Udaipur. The Tower of Victory was built by Rana Kumbha in commemoration of his many victories of Mughal invaders.

Delhi—Capital of India since 1911, was the capital of seven Empires. Some of the famous relics are—Fort and Palace of Shah Jehan with Pearl Mosque, Jumma Masjid, Kutub Minar, Ferozabad, Indraprastha, Tuglukabad etc. It occupies a strategic position, standing at the head of the plains of the Ganges and the Indus, the headquarters of all important railway lines of India.

Ellora—These famous caves can be conveniently reached from Aurangabad on Nizam's State Railway—and it is 71 miles from Manmad on G. I. P. Ry. Ellora cave temples, thirty-four in number, are perhaps the largest and most varied in India. There are three classes of caves, Hindu, Buddhist and Jain. Pictured here are some of the heroic sculptures—Siva with Parvati, Siva in dancing posture, Siva in his many manifestations dominate courts, niches and friezes. The most interesting is the Kailasa Temple which is carved entirely out of rock standing in a court 276 ft. long and 154 feet broad and the back wall of the court is over 100 ft. high.

Jaiapur—The most typical Hindu City built of pink stone, was founded in 1728 by Jai Singh II. Most famous is the deserted City of Ambar, 5 miles away where Rajput architecture can be seen at its best. There is also the famous observatory of Man Singh built about 1718.

Madura—Famous for the Minakshi (Fish-eyed Goddess) temple decorated with big Gopuram or Pagoda. The great Temple is 847 ft. by 729 ft. and surrounded by 9 Gopurams, the highest of which is 152 ft. The most elaborate stone carving is found in the Hall of 1,000 pillars.

Jubbulpur—616 miles from Bombay with an elevation of 1,362 ft. The Marble Rocks are situated 11 miles from Jubbulpur.

Aurangabad—Famous district and town in the Nizam's State where

world-renowned temples and monastic caves of Ellora and Ajanta are located. There is also the historical fort of Daulatabad, the town of Raolga which contains the tomb of the great Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb and the magnificent tomb of Aurangzeb's wife, Bibi-ka-Naghara, a replica of the Taj Mahal of Agra. From the city of Aurangabad all these places can be visited. It is a station on Nizam's State Railway and 71 miles from Manmad on G. I. P. Ry.

Pushkar—is famous for its lake and fair which is held in October-November. The lake is regarded as most sacred in India and the temple of Brahma close to the lake is supposed to mark the spot where the incarnation of the God took place.

Sanchi—In Bhopal State noted for Buddhist Stopes (*Stupas*) i.e., memorial mounds standing on the level top of small sandstone hill about 300 ft. high. The most imposing stupa is a solid dome of stone about 103 ft. high. Round the base is a pathway surrounded by stone railing and entered at the four points of the compass by gateways some 18 ft. high. Both gateways and railings are elaborately carved with bas reliefs and inscriptions.

Harappa—An extensive prehistoric site, dating back from about 3,500 B.C. is situated on the dry bed of the Ravi in the Montgomery District of the Punjab. It is 15 miles from Montgomery on Lahore-Karachi line of the N. W. Ry. The ruins which are spread in a circumference of about three miles comprise high mounds; but much of the ancient city lies buried beneath the surrounding alluvium. The most important monuments so far excavated are (1) Great granary, (2) Two series of workmen's quarters, (3) Eighteen circular platforms of mysterious purpose, (4) A large house, a well-built street gutted in pits, and a large number of drains, baths and several ancient wells. There is also a prehistoric cemetery. Here is also a museum containing antiquities excavated from the site.

Hampi (or Vijayanagar)—The ruins of this ancient city covering an extent of about 10 sq. miles on the south bank of Tungabhadra river near Hospet railway station on the Guntakul-Hubli section of the M. S. M. Railway is a witness to the rise and fall of this forgotten Hindu Empire which is said to be the finest and grandest in South India. Hampi was the birthplace and the capital of the glorious Hindu Empire of the Vijayanagar Kings whose temples, monasteries and palaces were praised by many a foreign traveller.

Mohenjo-Daro—The best preserved Indian city of the prehistoric times dating back from about 3300-2700 B.C. is situated eight and-a-half miles from Dokri Station on the Kotri-Dadu-Larkana branch of the North Western Railway on the right bank of the river Indus. The ruins cover a very large area (about 240 acres) of a series of towns built in successive ages one on the top of another. Mohenjo-Daro, the "Mound of the Dead", was once a strikingly well-planned city with broad streets, commodious and well-built houses, a good water supply and an astonishingly modern form of drainage. Great bath, is one of the most striking buildings of the

ancients and its annexes with smooth brick pavements made watertight with an economical use of gypsum bitumen. Only about a fifth of the entire area of the city has been so far exposed. The broad streets, which could accommodate several lines of traffic, the impressive high walls lining the narrow lanes, the tall chimney-like steaming of the walls as now exposed, produce an abiding impression of India's oldest city. Antiquities discovered include hundreds of pottery vessels of every shape and size from large-sized storage jars to beautiful miniature vases, a few millimetres in diameter, with various designs, model and toy animals in clay, beads and ornaments with which womenfolk loved to bedeck their bodies, artistic seals and sealings with inscriptions in a forgotten pictographic script which has baffled all attempts to decipher it and with beautiful designs of animals such as bulls, rhinos, elephants, tigers, buffaloes, etc. Copper and stone statuettes, stone weights, shell and ivory objects, copper utensils and objects of every day household use are amongst the innumerable objects discovered at Mohenjo-Daro.

Taxila—Is situated 200 miles from Lahore. Less than half a mile from the station is the archaeological remains spread over an area of about twenty-five square miles. They contain three separate cities. These cities contain remains built by Bactrian Greeks, Scythians, Parthians and Kushans. Besides these three cities there are many outlying monuments, mainly Buddhist stupas and monasteries.

Kashmir—Altitude varies from 5,000 to 6,000 ft. Srinagar is the summer capital. It is 5,200 ft. with an area of 11 sq. miles; mean temperature in January and February is 25°F. Srinagar is easily reached by two motor roads, *i.e.*, *via* Rawalpindi and *via* Jammu. It generally takes one day to reach Srinagar by motor car *via* Rawalpindi. Following are the heights of some prominent places of Kashmir—Srinagar 5,200 ft.; Gulmarg 8,700 ft.; Phalgam 7,000 ft.; Amarnath 12,729 ft. Places worth seeing in Kashmir are—Phalgam, 60 miles from Srinagar; Dal Lake; Amarnath—97 miles from Srinagar.

Lucknow—The capital of Oudh, ranks fourth in size among Indian cities. The grandeur of the city dates from Asaf-ud-daula, the fourth Nawab. The principal places of interest are Residency the Machchi Bhawan, the Inambara, and the Hussainabad, the Dilkush, Kaiser Bag.

Poona—City is famous as having been the capital of the Peshwas' dominions. It is the seat of Bombay Government during monsoon.

Konark—On a desolate waste of sand dunes, roughly 24 miles from Puri, stands the Black Pagoda, devoted to Surya, the sun-god, the stupendous relics of the thirteenth century. Carved from enormous blocks of granite, it is the wonder of artistic creation.

Fathepur Sikri—Short distance of 24 miles from Agra, founded by Akbar in A.D. 1569 in a lonely eminence. After Akbar's death, the city was deserted within fifty years of its foundation, the reason being lack of water. Interesting places are, imposing pile of great mosque measuring 542 feet each and 438 ft. north and south, the tomb of Saint Shaik Salim Chisti, houses of Akbar's wives, Miriam and Jodhbai. *Panch Mahals*—the

building of five storeys, Hiran Minar, Buland Darwaza, the famous sandstone chamber of *Diwani Khas* etc. This is the city of sandstone, the specimen of finest Mughal architecture.

Hardwar—It is situated at the place where the Ganges issues forth from the hills on its fertilizing career. *Hari-ki-Pari* is a place of worship, which is a footmark of Vishnu imprinted on a stone set into the upper wall of the ghat.

Sarnath—A few miles outside Benares. This is the place where Gautama Buddha preached his First Sermon on Nirvana and where at latter day Buddhist centre is growing up.

Budh-Gaya—is seven miles from Gaya in Bihar. Where Gautama found enlightenment and where Hindus regard the appropriate place at which to offer *pindas* to the spirits of dead ancestors.

PLACES TO SEE

Bhubaneswar Temple—The finest example of Hindu Temple in India.

Ellora—The largest cave temples in India.

Buland Darwaza—At Fatepur Sikri, is the noblest example of Mughal gateways and is the highest Indian portal.

Agra—The Fort, Moti Masjid, the Taj Mahal.

Delhi—The Red Fort, the beautiful *Dewani Khas* with its famous Persian inscription, "if there be a Paradise on earth it is this, it is this, it is this."

Sanchi Tope—is the largest and best preserved Buddhist Stupa in India.

Sravana Belgola—Contains the figure of Jain Saint Gomateshvara. A largest statue in Asia which is 56½ feet in height.

Rameswaram Temple—Contains longest and the most imposing gate corridors in the world—4,000 ft. of double colonnades, exquisitely curved.

Hyderabad—Ajanta and Ellora caves, the Mausoleum of Rabia Durani, wife of Emperor Aurangzeb, Tomb of Aurangzeb at Raoza,

great Fort of Daulatabad, Falaknama Palaces, Fort of Golconda.

Mysore State—Gold mines, Brindaban Gardens, Chamundi Hills, Gersoppa Falls.

Amritsar—The Golden Temple.

Jaipur—Jai Singh's Observatory, Deserted City of Amber.

Lahore—Shalmer Gardens, Tomb of Jehangir, Zamzama, the famous gun, Ranjit Singh's Mausoleum, Lawrence Gardens.

Gwalior—Fort Palace enclosing five Palaces.

Madras—The Aquarium, the Marina, Museum, Adyar.

Calcutta—Victoria Memorial, Botanical Gardens, the Indian Museum, the Belur Temple, Eden Gardens, the Maidan, The Zoo, Kalighat Temple, Dhakuria Lakes.

Bombay—Gateway of India, Rajabai Tower, Malabar Hills, Juhu, Elephanta Caves, Prince of Wales Museum, Victoria Gardens, Parsi Tower of Silence.

Trichinopoly—Rock-cut Temple and Tank, Temple of Srirangam.

Ajmer—Ana Sagar Lake, Daulat Bagh, the Durgah of Khawaja Sahib, Pushkar Lake.

Lucknow—The Residency, Machchi Bhawan (Fish Palace), Imambara, Husinabad.

Udaipur—Tower of Victory, Pichola Lake.

Budh Gaya—Scene of Buddha's great Renunciation and enlightenment.

Benares—Sarnath which contains

some of the most interesting Buddhist ruins ever discovered.

Poona—Parvati Temple, Hirabagh.

Muttra—35 miles above Agra, Archaeological Museum.

Karachi—the nearest Indian Port to Europe, the Beaches of Clifton, the Airport at Drigh Rd., the Manga Pir with Sulphur Springs.

Architectural and Historical Landmarks—Hindu

Kailasha Temple—In the Ellora Caves in Aurangabad in the Hyderabad State—a colossal monolith which must have taken nearly a century (6–8 century A.D.) to excavate from the cliff face.

Ajanta Frescoes—Famous frescoes in the Buddhist caves of Ajanta in Hyderabad State. These caves are situated in the horse-shoe valley. These frescoes are now ranked among the masterpieces of the world's art. There are 29 caves altogether (temples and cells) connected by paths or steps.

Marble Rocks—Near Jubbulpur where Nerbada River runs through a white chasm.

Sanchi Stupa—Famous Buddhist stupa in the Bhopal State. Stupa is a hemispherical monument of bricks or stones. Sanchi Stupa is one of the oldest (third—first century B.C.) and best preserved Stupa of India. Stupa stands on the top of a small hill and enclosed by the finest and oldest stone railing in India.

Tower of Victory, Chitore—A famous Hindu monument raised by Rana Kumbha in 1450 to commemorate his victory over the combined armies of Malwa and Guzerat. It consists of nine stories and is 122 ft. high.

Black Pagoda—In Konark, 24 miles from Puri. This is 1000 years old; famous on account of its remarkable carvings, one of the glorious of the Indian architecture.

Golden Temple—At Amritsar, the famous Sikh Temple. The temple stands on a raised plinth 65 ft. square in the centre of the tank and is surrounded by verandas.

Pushkar Lake—The famous sacred lake and fair of the Hindus at Pushkar, near Ajmer.

Harappa—an extensive prehistoric site dating back from about 3,500 B.C. is situated on the dry bed of Ravi in Montgomery District of Punjab.

Hampi (Vijayanagar)—The ruins of this ancient city covering an extent of about 10 sq. miles on the south bank of Tungabhadra river near Hospet Railway Station is a witness to the rise and fall of this forgotten Hindu Empire which is said to be the finest and grandest in South India.

Mohenjo-Daro—The best preserved Indian city of the prehistoric times dating back from about 3300–2700 B.C. is situated eight and a half miles from Dokri Station of N. W. Rly. on the right bank of the river Indus. The ruins cover a very large area (about 240 acres) of a series of towns

built in successive ages, one on the top of another. It was a well-planned city with broad streets, commodious and well-built houses, a good water supply and an astonishing modern form of drainage.

Amber Palace—The deserted capital of Jaipur, where the Palace is considered to include the finest specimens of Rajput architecture.

Sirguya Frescoes—are the earliest dateable Indian paintings. These are a group of Buddhist frescoes (100 B.C.) on the walls of a cave in Sirguya in the Central Provinces.

Temples of Vimala and Tejahpala—are the greatest achievements of Jaina architecture in Mount Abu. These temples are built entirely of marble. Crowned by cupolas.

Temple of Bhubaneswara—Near Puri, most famous of these are *Rajrani* and *Lingaraj* Temples. Rajrani Temple, erected in the 11th century is a gigantic tower covered with statuary and surmounted by receding layers of stone, the whole inward-curving tower ending in a great circular crown and a spire. Lingaraj Temple is the most perfect example of north Indian architecture.

Brahut—Central India. The sculptures on the stone railing surrounding the Brahut stupa (second century B.C.) represent, with most careful exactitude episodes in the life of the Buddha and the former lives.

Buddhist caves at Karli.—One of the most famous of rock-cut temples. It is the largest and most harmonious.

Buddha-Gaya—The temple (200 ft. high) is built on the site of a shrine erected by the Emperor Asoka. It commemorates the moment when Gautama meditating under the tree of Bodhi attained enlightenment and acquired the quality of Buddha.

Kajuraho Temples—At Kajuraho in Bundelkhand are grouped about thirty temples dedicated to Siva, Vishnu or Jina. They date from about 950 to 1050.

Elephanta Caves—Saiva temples in Elephanta Island in Bombay Harbour contains an important Saiva rock-cut shrine. The famous Trimurti figure of Siva is situated in a niche.

Mahabalipuram—or Seven Pagodas is situated on the coast south of Madras. Its temples are bas-reliefs and are cut from living rocks. The most famous is the 'Descent of the Ganges.' This giant image dating from the seventh century is cut in a granite rock 90 ft. long and 43 ft. high. Another famous sculpture is "Vishnu reclining on the snake Ananta," "Arjuna's Penance" is also another bas-relief and it is the largest bas-relief in the world.

The Temple at Madura—The huge Temple at Madura (early 17th century), the most famous of South Indian Temples, is dedicated to Siva and his spouse Minakshi (the Goddess with fish eyes). It extends over an area of 15 acres and contains nine Gopurams, of colossal dimension. It is surrounded by nine Gopurams or gateways, and contains outstanding examples of elaborate stone carving, particularly in the Hall of Thousand Pillars and along its many corridors.

The Temple of Sri Rangam—At Trichinopoly. The great Vaishnava Temple at Sri Rangam with a hall of thousand columns.

Muslim

Gol Gumbaz—At Bijapur, is the largest dome in the world with an area of 18,225 square feet.

Kutub Minar (280 ft. high) at Delhi—Is one of the masterpieces of Indian technology and art. It is the largest minaret in the world. It was built by Altamash in 1232 A.D.

Mausoleum of Sher Shah—At Sasaram, is a gigantic solid and masculine example of Moslem architecture.

Fort at Agra—Containing ruins of Pearl Mosque, Hall of Public and Private Audience, the Throne Palace, King's Baths, Hall of Mirrors, Jasmine Palace, Jasmine Tower.

Taj Mahal—Most famous tomb built by Shah Jahan in memory of his young wife—rises with its slender minarets in the midst of magnificent gardens. It is the result of collaboration between Indian Turkish and European artists. The height of the dome is about 230 ft. It is the most perfect example of Mughal architecture.

Fatehpur Sikri—Few miles from Agra, the city of palaces and temples built of red sand-stone by Akbar in 1569-1584. Most important piece of art is Buland Darwaja, 126 ft. high built in commemoration of the conquest of Khandesh.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

1. RAILWAYS

Railway Board

The Largest undertaking in India is the extensive railway system. It represents one of the greatest enterprises in the world. All the 41,000 miles are now under the control of the Government having bought them out from the private companies that built them.

Throughout India Government exercises direct or indirect control over all railways through the Railway Board. Prior to 1905 Railways formed a sections of Public Works Department but the first Railway Board consisting of a Chairman and two Members was then appointed. It was however subordinate to the Department of Commerce and Industry. This arrangement proving unsatisfactory, a separate Railway Department was formed in 1908, and the head of the Board was thenceforward designated the President and given enhanced powers including direct access to the Viceroy. There was also an Accountant-General for Railways and a Chief Engineer and Chief Mechanical Engineer to advise the Board on Technical matters. The Board was still under the administrative charge of the Hon. Member of Commerce and Industry in the Viceroy's Council. On 1st April, 1924, in

accordance to the recommendations of the Acwarth Committee, the President was designated Chief Commissioner of Railways and a Financial Commissioner was also created and there were two members. This is the existing formation of the Board. The Chief Commissioner is the Secretary to the Government in the railway department. In 1924 the Railway Finances were separated from the General Finances of the Government.

The Railway Board functions as a department of the Central Government. It is, as distinct from Railway Department, a Statutory Authority invested, under the Indian Railways Act of 1890, with certain powers and functions for the whole of India by the Indian Railway Board Act of 1905. In addition, it is the direct controlling authority of the State managed railways.

The Chief Commissioner of Railways is solely responsible to the Government of India for arriving at decisions on technical questions and advising the Government in matters of railway policy ; he is not liable to be over-ruled, as the President was, by his colleagues in the Railway Board. He is *ex-officio* the Secretary to the Central Government in the Railway Department with the right of direct access to the Governor-General.

Functions of Members—The Financial Commissioner of Railways is the direct representative of Finance Department in the Railway Board. He is vested with the full powers of the Government of India to sanction railway expenditure subject to general control of the Hon. the Finance Member. The Member Transportation and Member, Staff assist Chief Commissioner of Railways in the day-to-day administration. The Secretary, Communications Department, functions at Board meetings along with other members of the Board.

Technical Staff—The Railway Board is assisted by a technical staff of Directors and Deputy Directors who are in direct charge to the work of the various branches of the Department and are responsible for the disposal of all but the work of highest importance. These posts are as follows—Director of Civil Engineering, Director of Mechanical Engineering, Director of Establishment, Director of Traffic.

There is also a Director of Finance who is responsible for all financial matters.

Management—There are two important systems of administration-organisation on Indian Railways—*Divisional System and Departmental System*. In Divisional System, the railway is divided into divisions, each under a Divisional Superintendent who in turn has officers of all departments, like Civil Engineering, Transportation, Commercial, Accounts, Stores etc. In the departmental system the railway is divided into smaller portions called Districts and each of those Districts is under District Officer.

Growth of Indian Railways

First stage of development dates from 1844 when at the time of East India Company, proposals were made by a body of persons for railway construction in India. These proposals resulted, five years later in a contract for construction by the E. I. Ry. Co. of an experimental line of 100 miles from Calcutta towards Mirzapur. A similar contract was made in the same year with G. I. P. Ry. for a line from Bombay to Kalyan.

But a definite railway construction policy was adopted by the East India Company only after 1859 on the recommendation of Lord Dalhousie's historic minute on the question. This date is the first important landmark in the history of Railway construction in India. Lord Dalhousie preferred the agency of companies under supervision and control of the Government instead of the construction of lines on behalf of the Government by its own officers. He also held that "the conduct of commercial undertakings did not fall within the proper functions of any government."

The second stage of railway construction in India can be stated to begin from 1880 when the importance of railways to protect the country from famine was clearly recognised. The Famine Commissioners appointed after the great famine of 1878 urged for the grant and rapid extension of the railway system in India. They recommended the giving of full scope to the extension of railway by private enterprise or modified form of guaranteed system without involving the government in financial or other liabilities of an objectionable nature.

The next period of railway development in India began in the present century and continued till the outbreak of the Great War in 1914. This can be termed a period of economic prosperity for India. The railways helped to develop the trade and commerce of the country. The exportable primary goods of India were brought to great ports of embarkation and thence taken by steamers to the western countries.

The outbreak of first Great War in 1914 produced certain inevitable reactions on the main lines of development of Indian Railways. Imports gradually declined, while exports progressively rose ultimately to very huge proportions. Thus the port-wise traffic increased, while the outward traffic from the ports showed a declining tendency. The latter factor was more than made up by the increased distribution within the country of commodities grown or manufactured in India.

The year 1924 can be stated to be very important landmark in the history of Indian railways. In that year Separation Convention regarding railway finances was introduced by which Railway finance was separated from general budget. This was intended to free general budget from fluctuations of uneven Railway earnings and at the same time to enable the Railways to carry on a continuous policy based on

the necessity of making a definite return to general revenues. The reorganised Railway Board in its present form came into existence. Following the recommendation of the Acworth Committee, the Railway Depreciation fund was instituted.

First beginning and progress of Railways in India

On April 18, 1853, first Indian Railway was opened from Bombay to Thana—a mere 21½ miles under the management of Great Indian Peninsular Railways.

Although Railway construction had started in 1853, there was by 1880 only, 8,996 miles of Railway for the country as a whole. A programme of rapid construction increased the total mileage to 14,379 by 1888. In 1890—16,404 ; in 1900—24,707 ; in 1910—32,099 ; in 1920—36,735 ; in 1930—41,724 ; in 1940-41—41,052. The increase of passengers is equally remarkable. In 1888 number of passengers were 103 millions. 1900—175 millions ; 1910—372 millions ; 1920—533 millions ; 1930—634 millions ; 1940-41—510 millions. Gross receipts in 1888 was 20 crores ; 1900—32 crores ; 1910—51 crores ; 1920—89 crores ; 1930—116 crores ; 1937—108 crores.

Kind of Railways

(1) State ownership and State management as E. I. R. (2) State ownership and Company management. (3) Company ownership and Company management. (4) Indian State Railways as Nizam's Railways. (5) Railways owned by District Boards and other bodies but managed by the State or by Companies.

Objective of Indian Railways

(1) **Commercial Railways**—for the development of trade and industry of the country and also movement of traffic both inward and outward.

(2) **Protective Railways**—constructed in areas liable to famines for the purpose of protecting them in the event of an outbreak of famine by cheap and speedy transport of foodstuffs from important grain centres in India.

(3) **Strategic Railways**—connect specially by good system of Railways those places of strategic importance from point of view of the effective defence of the country.

Three Classes of Railways

Class I consists of Railways with gross earnings of Rs. 50 lakhs and over a year.

Class II consists of Railways with gross earnings of less than Rs. 50 lakhs a year but exceeding Rs. 10 lakhs a year.

Class III consists of Railways with gross earnings of Rs. 10 lakhs and under per year.

Some Railway Organisations

Central Standard Office—A separate self-contained organisation called Central Standard Office, for the conduct of all work connected with the production of standard design and specifications for all materials, plant and rolling stock in use on Indian Railways was formed in 1930. Three separate branches of this office deal respectively with mechanical engineering standards, civil engineering standards and specifications, while a separate research branch, constituted at a later date undertakes civil and mechanical engineering research.

Indian Railway Conference Association—This Association was first organised in 1879 mainly for the interchange of rolling stock between Broad Gauge Railway. The present non-official organisation was inaugurated in 1902 when a formal resolution was passed, establishing the permanent Conference, independent of Government, with the name of the "Indian Railway Conference." The Association's main function has been to frame rules for the carriage and interchange of the passenger and goods stock, as well as to regulate the rates and fares and conditions under which the traffic shall be carried.

Railway Rates Advisory Committee—The function of this Committee is to investigate and recommend on—(a) complaints of "undue preference" (b) complaints that rates are unreasonable (c) complaints or disputes in respect of terminals (d) complaints in respect of conditions as to packing of articles specially liable to damage or liable to cause damage to other merchandise.

Gauges

The standard gauge on Indian Railways is 5' 6" but in 1870 chiefly for reasons of economy, the metre gauge of 3' 3 $\frac{3}{8}$ " was adopted provisionally for certain new lines and has since been a permanent feature of the Railway system.

Classes of Railway

Class I—				Owned by	Worked by
O. T. R.	State	State
B. N. R.	State	State
B. B. C. I.	State	State
B. & A. Railway	State	State
E. I. R.	State	State
G. I. P. R.	State	State
Jodhpur	State	Indian State
M. S. M.	State	State
Nizam's State Railway	State	Nizam's State Rly.
N. W. R.	State	State
Rohilkhad & Kumaon	State	State
S. I. R.	State	State

Class II—Barsi Light (Company subsidised by Government of India and Indian State); Bengal Dooars (Company subsidised by District Board); Bhavnagar State (owned by Indian State); Bikaner State (owned by Indian State); D. H. Railway (Company subsidised by Local Government); Dibru Sadiya (Company subsidised by Local Government); Gaekwar's Baroda State (Indian State); Gondal (Indian State); Jamnagar Dwarka (Indian State); Shahadara (Company subsidised by Local Government).

Class III—Ahmedpur Katwa; Sasaram Light; Bankura-Damodar River; Baraset-Basirhat Light; Bengal Provincial; Buktarpur-Bihar Light; Burdwan-Katwa; Cutch State; Dehri-Rohtas Light; Dholpur State; Futwah-Islampur; Gwalior Light; Howrah Amta Light; Howrah Sheakhala Light; Jagadhri Light; Jessore-Jhenidah; Jorhat Provincial; Kalighat-Falta; Kulasekurapatnam Light; Matheran Light; Porbandar State; Tezpur Balipara Light; Trivellore Light; Udaipur-Chitorgarh.

Total Routes

1936-37	41,068	1940-41	41,052
1937-38	41,076	1941-42	40,477
1938-39	41,133	1942-43	40,525
1939-40	41,156	1943-44	40,512

Working Expenses (000Rs.)

1939-40	72,17,09	1942-43	86,49,10
1940-41	78,15,89	1943-44	1,13,83,27
1941-42	80,29,58				

Net Earnings (000Rs.)

1939-40	39,33,19	1942-43	81,39,64
1940-41	53,20,43	1943-44	84,96,22
1941-42	64,39,79				

Total Capital Outlay (oooRs.)

1938-39	8,47,82,21	1941-42	8,48,05,51
1939-40	8,52,59,34	1942-43	8,49,92,16
1940-41	8,53,78,17	1943-44	8,58,48,78

Accidents

	<i>Killed</i>	<i>Injured</i>		<i>Killed</i>	<i>Injured</i>
1935-36	.. 3,009	10,634	1939-40	.. 3,537	18,282
1936-37	.. 3,153	11,164	1940-41	.. 3,752	19,833
1937-38	.. 3,370	14,111	1941-42	.. 3,783	22,151
1938-39	.. 3,474	15,809			

Gross Earnings (000Rs.)

1939-40	1,11,50,28	1941-42	1,44,69,37
1940-41	1,26,36,32	1942-43	1,67,88,74
				1943-44	1,98,79,49

No. of Passengers (000)

1935-36	483,132	1940-41	575,732
1936-37	489,606	1941-42	623,136
1937-38	521,285	1942-43	622,333
1938-39	530,623	1943-44	778,000
1939-40	529,675				

Tons Carried (000)

1936-37	82,406	1940-41	92,780
1937-38	87,289	1941-42	97,995
1938-39	88,361	1942-43	95,258
1939-40	92,179				

Mileage of Railways

<i>Class I</i>		<i>Miles</i>	<i>Class I</i>		<i>Miles</i>
B. A. Ry.	..	3,459.74	Jodhpur	..	1,125.69
O. T. Ry.	..	2,684.19	M. S. M.	..	2,949.31
B. N. Ry.	..	3,375.76	Mysore State	..	738.27
B. B. C. I. Ry.	..	3,403.94	Nizam State	..	1,359.98
E. I. Ry.	..	4,106.94	N. W. Ry.	..	6,885.24
G. I. P. Ry.	..	3,530.17	S. I. Ry.	..	2,348.90

Net Earning on Capital Outlay

		P.C.			P.C.
1936-37	..	4.33	1940-41	..	4.23
1937-38	..	4.49	1941-42	..	7.59
1938-39	..	4.24	1942-43	..	9.57
1939-40	..	4.61	1943-44	..	9.89

Railway Contribution

	<i>Contribution to general revenue (Rs.)</i>	<i>Transferred to Ry. Reserve Fund (Rs.)</i>	<i>Total gain (Rs.)</i>
1939-40	4,33,00,000	—	4,33,00,000
1940-41	12,16,00,000	6,30,00,000	18,46,00,000
1941-42	20,17,00,000	—	28,08,00,000
1942-43	20,13,00,000	8,86,00,000	45,07,00,000
1943-44	37,64,00,000	13,20,00,000	50,84,00,000

Recent Railway Disasters in India

July 17, 1937—Bhita, 126 killed, 200 injured.

January 16, 1938—Bamrauli, 7 killed, 15 injured.

June 7, 1938—Madhupur, 2 killed, 34 injured.

October 16, 1938—Moghulsarai, 3 killed, 40 injured.

January 12, 1939—Hazaribagh, 49 injured.

January 25, 1939—Daltongunge, 7 killed, 3 injured.

April, 1939—Majdia, 34 killed.

June 28, 1939—Delhi-Dehra Dun mixed passenger, 8 killed, 22 injured.

May 15, 1940—Frontier Mail near Jekot, 18 killed, 20 injured.

May 29, 1940—Tindivandum (Madras) 5 dead, 61 injured.

August, 1940—Dacca Mail derailed near Jayrampur, 36 killed, 90 injured.

February 20, 1942—Khaga, 14 killed, 52 injured.

January 8, 1942—Borhat, 1 killed, 15 injured.

May 2, 1942—Near Simurali, 12 injured.

May 16, 1942—Oderolal (Sind) 23 killed, 27 injured.

July 7, 1942—Burdwan, 9 killed, 15 injured.

November 11, 1942—Chhatian (Assam) 10 killed, 40 injured.

April 2, 1942—Manauri, 9 killed, 37 injured.

June 8, 1943—Dum Dum, 1 killed, 37 injured.

June 3, 1943—Bombay Mail, 83 killed, 100 injured.

November 14, 1943—Sendanur (Madras) 30 killed, 100 injured.

November 23, 1944—Arrah, near Patna, 8 killed, 88 injured.

March 22, 1945—Jungshahi (Sind) 24 killed, 46 injured.

May 21, 1945—Near Manirampur, 12 killed, 60 injured.

July 28, 1945—Moghulsarai, 17 killed, 5 injured.

November 7, 1945—Atraighat B. A. Ry.—15 killed, 40 injured.

Railway Facts

There are 7,200 Railway Stations in India.

* * * *

The North Western Railway serves an area more than three times that of Great Britain.

* * * *

First railway lines in India from Calcutta to Mirzapur and Bombay to Kalayan were completed in 1853.

* * * *

Third class passengers contribute 90 p.c. of the railway receipts.

* * * *

First electric trains in India ran between Victoria Terminus (Bombay) and Kurla in 1925.

2. ROADS IN INDIA

The importance of roads and the facilities of transport in a vast country like India can scarcely be exaggerated. A system of well-kept and well-constructed roads is essential for country's economic and cultural progress. India's deficiency in the matter of roads has contributed very largely to her agricultural, commercial and industrial backwardness to-day. There are only about 74,000 miles of metalled roads and some 266,000 miles of unmetalled tracts, by courtesy, designated roads. The most serious defect is the lack of proper and adequate road communication between villages and markets. As a result the distribution of essentials is unbalanced and the people of the agricultural classes remain poverty-stricken and inert.

As an example of how badly off British India is for roads, the proportion of road mileage here works out at about 35 miles per 100 sq. miles as against 200 in U.K. and about 100 in U.S.A.

The greater portion of the roads in the interior are merely mud tracts almost impossible to wheeled traffic during monsoon periods. Importance of road communications was first appreciated during the administration of Lord Dalhousie when Public Works Departments were created in each province.

The roads in India can be classed in four heads—Trunk, Main, District and Village roads.

There exist at present four great trunk roads with which most of the feeder roads of the country are linked. The most important of these roads is the Grand Trunk Road between Calcutta and Jamrud at the mouth of the Khyber Pass. It passes through Benares, Allahabad, Lucknow, Delhi and Peshawar and the traffic which has passed that way across the centuries makes cavalcade of India and British history. There is another road between Bombay and Delhi, the whole of which is metalled and is open virtually throughout the year. Between Bombay and Madras there is also a good metalled road. Besides these metalled roads, there are village or district kuncha roads stretching throughout the country but conditions of these roads, specially in rainy season are precarious.

With the introduction of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms 'Roads' became a provincial transferred subject and were financed wholly from provincial revenues. The report of the Indian Road Development Committee in 1927-28 resulted in the Government of India creating the Central Road Development Fund in 1929, which derives its proceeds from a tax on petrol for the construction and improvement of roads. This sum is distributed to Provinces and States on the basis of petrol consumption and has contributed a large part of the available resources for road improvement and development as opposed to maintenance. A small reserve of 15 p.c. is retained by the Government of India for administration, research and special grants in aid and the rest is allocated for expenditure in the various areas.

Road Administration—Roads are a provincial subject and may be divided

into two classes—Provincial Roads under Public Works Department and Local Roads in charge of local bodies. In British India as a whole about 80 p.c. of the extra municipal mileage is under the charge of District Boards or District Councils.

The important trunk roads in Provinces are generally maintained from provincial revenues through Public Works Department, and local roads being in charge of District Boards, including unmetalled rural roads.

The roads are the principal feeders of railways and about 50 per cent. of railway mileage is paralleled by metalled roads. More than three-fourths of the total road mileage lies in the Indo-Gangetic plains. There are also several million miles of inter village kuncha roads in rural areas.

Roads in Br. India

	<i>Total mileage (metalled & unmetalled)</i>	<i>No. of registered motor vehicles</i>
1934	257,795	186,706
1935	260,101	151,193
1936	295,654	142,924
1937	302,883	151,717
1938	not available	146,429
1939	do	159,245
1940	do	140,461*

Post-war Plan of Road Development—The Central Government have proposed the construction and maintenance of a system of main trunk roads to be known as *National Highways*. The National Highways comprise the main inter-provincial and trans-continental roads and amount to a total of approximately 18,000 miles, of which 15,000 are in British India and about 3,000 in States. The National Highways which consist in the main of the existing trunk roads, will fill in the gaps which at present exist in big trunk roads, such as the big gaps in Calcutta-Bombay National Highway. A new National Highway is projected from Calcutta to Siliguri, linking with the existing road from Siliguri into Assam.

3. WATERWAYS

This is another important form of Transport in India. There are only 3,800 miles of navigable canals, but irrigation canals and rivers are navigable for about 25,00 miles.

<i>No. of Vessels cleared</i>	<i>Tonnage (000 tons)</i>	<i>No. of Vessels cleared</i>	<i>Tonnage (000 tons)</i>
1934-35	81,036	17,437	100,385
1935-36	95,322	17,493	99,968
1936-37	96,401	17,407	94,318
			16,238

* Excluding Delhi Province.

4. AIRWAYS IN INDIA

Under the International Air Conference of 1919 every State was recognised to have full sovereignty of the air above its territory and territorial waters and all contracting parties agreed to give freedom of innocent passage to private aircraft of other contracting parties.

The Government of India's policy regarding civil aviation was enunciated in March, 1927 when Sir Basil Blackett stated in the Assembly that "the direction in which civil aviation should be developed in India, should be by the use, if we can do it, of a company which would receive a subsidy from government. . . . The government's definite intention is that, if it is possible, the company should be an Indian company with rupee capital and a majority of Indian directors."

The first air service in India was started between Karachi and Bombay by Government and since then there has been continued progress. The problem of civil aviation is now under the Director of Civil Aviation.

Within recent years there has been remarkable progress of aviation in India as a means of air transport. Foreign and Indian airways have established their air stations. Foreign air services such as Air France, K. L. M. (Dutch), British Overseas Airways Corporation passed over India en route to Indo-China, East Indies and Australia before present war.

British Airways Corporation and Calcutta-Chungking Air Service managed by China National Airways are now carrying regular service.

Bombay and Madras have air connections with Colombo via Trivandrum, Bombay is also connected with Delhi. The mileage of regular air routes in India is about 6,500 miles. Tata Company Ltd., is the leading company in India to operate internal air routes. There are also several flying clubs in India subsidised by Government.

Much progress has been made recently towards aviation in India. An Aeronautical Technical Institute was opened in 1937 at Jamnagar for training a limited number of ground engineers. Hindustan Aircraft Company has been started in 1940 for aircraft manufacture in India at Bangalore.

Indian Air Services

(1) *Tata Sons Ltd.*, carries operations from Bombay to Delhi; Bombay to Calcutta; Bombay to Madras; Bombay to Ahmedabad.

(2) *Indian National Airways* carries operations between Delhi to Calcutta; Delhi to Peshawar; Delhi to Madras and Delhi to Karachi.

(3) *Air Services of India Ltd.*, Daily Service between Calcutta and Bombay and between Bombay and Delhi.

(4) *Nizam's Airways* between Hyderabad and Madras.

Foreign Lines—At present two important lines are connecting India with foreign countries—(1) *B. O. A. C.* from United Kingdom to Rangoon via Biscarosse, Augusta, Cairo, Bahrein, Karachi, Calcutta and Rangoon.

(2) *Pan-American (U.S.A.)* extends up to Calcutta.

Names of Foreign Services—(1) *Q.E.A.*=*Qantas Empire Airways*,

- (2) R.A.S.=Royal Air Service, (3) P.A.A.=Pan-American Airways,
 (4) D.D.L.=Danish Aviation Ltd., (5) A.B.A.=Swadeshi Air Service,
 (6) K.L.M.=Royal Dutch Air Lines, (7) T.W.A.=Trans-continental and
 Western Air (American).

	Mileage by Ind. Air Services (internal)	No. of Passengers		Mileage by Ind. Air Services (internal)	No. of Passengers
1933	.. 153,680	155	1936	.. 496,539	349
1934	.. 345,771	757	1937	.. 622,193	1,178
1935	.. 553,754	553	1938	.. 1,412,334	2,104

INDIAN AGRICULTURE

India is mainly an agricultural country. Nearly three-fourths of the people of the country are engaged in or dependent on agricultural or pastoral pursuits. Cultivated land of India is the chief support of the whole country. The total area of cultivable land in India is about 358 million acres, exclusive of a forest area of approximately 68 million acres.

India's supremacy in Agriculture

1. Three-fourths of the people of India are directly engaged in or dependent on agricultural or pastoral pursuits.
2. India is the world's greatest grower of sugar-cane.
3. India shares with China the primacy for production of rice.
4. In cotton it ranks next only to U.S.A.
5. It leads the world in the production of groundnuts and occupies second position in regard to linseed.
6. In jute and in lac India possesses world's monopoly.
7. Next to China, India is the world's biggest producer of tea.
8. India holds record for its cattle population.
9. Rice is by far the most important crop in India.
10. Wheat is the most important commercial grain in India.
11. India is the largest producer of tea in the world.
12. Cotton is the most important commercial crop in India.

Crop Seasons—There are two well-marked agricultural seasons in India. First crop begins with the commencement of monsoon and is harvested in autumn. This is known as *kharif crop*. The second crop begins in the autumn and is harvested in spring. This is known as *Rabi crop*. This crop season mainly applies to Northern India.

Principal *Kharif crops* are—wheat, rice, jawar, bajra, maize, cotton, etc. Principal *Rabi crops* are wheat, barley, gram, linseed, rapeseed and mustard. But in Southern India, the *Kharif* or *Rabi crops* have practically no distinction, because of the absence of any marked distinction between various seasons.

Government Departments—Government Agricultural Departments were first started in 1884 as a result of the recommendations of the Famine Commission of 1880. But practically no work was done excepting certain

amount of statistical work. But the organisation in its present shape and scope came from the initiative taken by Lord Curzon. An Imperial Agricultural Research Institute was established at Pusa in 1905 and a year later the Indian Agricultural Service came into being. The Imperial Agricultural Research Institute remained at Pusa until 1934, when the great Bihar earthquake damaged the buildings beyond repair. The Pusa Institute was removed to Delhi. The Institute's principal work has been the improvement of wheat and sugarcane. The Institute is divided into six main sections: Agriculture, Chemistry and Soil Science, Botany, Mycology and Plant Pathology, Sugarcane Breeding and Entomology. With gradual expansion, Agricultural Colleges were started in Poona, Cawnpore, Nagpur, Lyallpur, Coimbatore. In 1905 All-India Board of Agriculture was founded with the object of bringing Provincial Agricultural Departments more in touch with one another. The control of the Government of India over Provincial Governments was considerably relaxed as a result of the Government of India Act of 1919, and in 1921 agriculture became a transferred subject under a minister. The Imperial Department of Agriculture now deals with All-India Agricultural problems and maintains the following institutions: (1) Agricultural Research Institute, Delhi; (2) Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Mukteswar; (3) Imperial Institutions of Animal Husbandry and Dairying, Bangalore and Wellington; (4) Cattle-breeding farm, Karnal; (5) Creamery at Anand; (6) Imperial Cattle Breeding Station, Coimbatore; and (7) Sugar Bureau, Cawnpore.

The Agricultural Departments carry on experiment and research on Agricultural farms and laboratories and organise propaganda to secure the adoption of new methods and improved implements and also distribute seeds, manures, etc.

Another important development of the Agricultural Commission's recommendation is the establishment of the *Central Agricultural Marketing Department* in 1935 for (1) grading and standardisation of products, (2) establishment of regulated markets, (3) organisation of producers for bulking produce and disposing of them, (4) improvement in rural communications and provisions of subsidiary roads. The Agricultural Produce (grading and marketing) Act was passed in 1937 providing for the grading and marketing certain articles of agricultural produce. Up to now 14 commodities have been brought under the operation of this Act. These graded products bear the seal "Agmark".

There are also *Indian Central Committees* on jute, cotton tobacco, etc. to assist in the improvement and development of the production and marketing these products and all matters incidental thereto.

Leading Crops of India

Crops of India may be classified as follows:—

- (1) Food Crops such as (a) Rice, (b) Wheat, (c) Barley, (d) Millets, (e) Pulses and Grams, (f) Sugarcane, (g) Spices.
- (2) *Fibres*—(a) Linseed, (b) Jute, (c) Silk, (d) Hemp and Flax.
- (3) *Oilseeds*—(a) Linseed, (b) Mustard, (c) Rape, (d) Groundnut, (e) Coconut, (f) Castor, (g) Sesamum.

- (4) *Drugs and Beverages*—(a) Poppy, (b) Tobacco, (c) Tea, (d) Coffee, (f) Cinchona, (g) Indigo.

Rice is the leading crop of India and occupies 30 per cent. of the total cultivated area of India. Southern and north-eastern India are the home of rice. It is generally regarded as winter crop being mainly harvested in December and January. Rice is a special crop of monsoon lands. Sufficiently high temperature, high rainfall and fertile alluvial plains are necessary for the growth of the crop. It is sown in the months of May to August. There are two other varieties of comparatively small importance, namely, autumn rice and summer rice. Autumn rice is sown in May and June and harvested in September, and summer rice is sown in January and February and harvested in May and June. India produces more than 50 per cent. of world's total production of rice. The term 'coarse' and 'fine' in the case of rice refer to grain shape, the long thin types which are considered rather a delicacy being the fine ones. There are also certain types which have peculiar scent. The principal seats of cultivation of rice are Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Madras. Rice is also grown fairly in C. P., Assam, Bombay and United Provinces.

Wheat which is a *rabi* (spring) crop in India is sown from October to December and is harvested from March to May. It stands next to rice in importance. Northern India is the home of wheat. It is a staple food of the people in the Punjab, U. P. and N. W. F. Province. India produces about one-tenth of world's wheat. There are two principal species grown in India, one of these being normal 'bread' wheat of Europe and the other so-called 'marconi' wheat. It is grown extensively in the Punjab and U. P. and also in small scale in C. P., Bombay, Bihar, Orissa and North-West India. It is also grown in the Indian States of Central India, Gwalior State, Punjab States, Rajputana States.

Sugarcane crop is usually planted from February to May and is harvested from November to January. In Madras, the crop is harvested between December and May. The northern provinces of India are responsible for 97 per cent. of the total cane-production of India. The chief cane-growing provinces are—U. P., Punjab, Bihar, Orissa, Madras, Bombay and Assam.

Barley is chiefly grown in U. P. and Berar. *Spices* are of numerous varieties grown throughout India and mainly in extreme south but certain varieties are cultivated every where. Indian spices are *pepper* (grown in Bengal, Malabar, Coorg, Canara and Travancore); *Chillies* (in Bengal, Madras and Bombay); *Ginger* (in Bombay, Bengal, U. P. and Madras); *Cardamom* (in the forests of Southern and Western India, Mysore, Madras, Travancore and Canara); *betelnuts* (in Bengal and S. India); *Cinnamon* (in Western Ghats of S. India).

Millets: *Jowar* (in Madras called cholam) and *Bajra* are two varieties of millets and they constitute an important group of food crops for masses of Madras, Deccan, Hyderabad. *Bajra* is a *kharif* crop while *jowar* is a *kharif* as well as *rabi* crop. *Bajra* is small pearly grain and makes a nutri-

tious unleavened bread. There are other species of millets; one of importance is *ragi* with forked head and small grain.

Pulses—There are many kinds in India and they play an important role in nutrition and help to balance the diet. These pulses are often grown mixed with cereals. Of these grown in the rainy season *arhar* is most important, while of the pulses grown in the *rabi* or dry season, *gram* (channa) is by far the most important.

Tobacco—About 40 per cent. of the total quantity of tobacco produced in the world grows in India. The principal tobacco growing areas are in the world grows in India. The principal tobacco growing areas are Assam. The bulk of tobacco grown in India is consumed locally.

Poppy is grown in the following places—Bihar, U. P., Indian States of Indore, Gwalior, Bhopal and Mewar.

Cinchona is mainly grown on the government plantations of Nilgiri Hills and Darjeeling.

Tea seeds are sown between November and March and seedlings are transplanted when they are at least six months old. The crop is plucked from May to December in Northern India and from January to December in Southern India. India is the largest producer of tea in the world. It is mainly grown in Northern India, such as Darjeeling, Dooars, Assam, Cachar, Sylhet and Terai. Southern India also produces a small percentage of total output of India. 76 per cent. of the total area lies in Assam and two contiguous districts (Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri). Most of the tea plantations in India are on hill slopes between 2,000 and 5,000 ft. above sea level. India produces black tea only. The various interests of the industry are now controlled by four sets of bodies—Indian Tea Market Expansion Board, the Indian Tea Licensing Committee, Tea Associations of Northern and Southern India and in respect of Northern India, the Tea District Labour Associations.

Coffee is sown and transplanted in rainy season. The harvesting period is from October to January. This industry is confined to Southern India comprising Madras Presidency, Coorg and the States of Mysore, Travancore and Cochin. Mysore produces about 50 per cent. of total Indian coffee. Indian Coffee Cess Act, 1935, provides for the creation of fund to be expended by a committee for the promotion of cultivation, manufacture and sale of Indian coffee.

Cotton has two crops, namely, the early and later. The early cotton grows mainly in central and northern India and the late cotton in southern and western India. Taking both the crops together, the sowing season extends from March to August and the harvesting season from October to April. In parts of Southern India, sowings continue till December and harvesting till July. The major portion of Indian cotton is exported to Japan which is the largest buyer of Indian cotton. The cotton research is carried under the supervision of Indian Central Cotton Committee in co-operation with the Department of Agriculture. Bombay Presidency is the centre of cotton industry.

Jute is autumn crop, being sown from March to May and harvested in August and September. It is practically a monopoly of Bengal. The importance of *Jute* can be gathered from the fact that it forms about 20 to 25 per cent. of the exports from the whole of India.

Silk—Mysore is responsible for two-thirds of total output of silk in India. In Kashmir, silk is a state monopoly. The chief area of *Mulberry* silk are the (1) districts of Murshidabad, Malda, Rajshahi and Birbhum in Bengal, (2) Dehra Dun and Pertabgarh in U. P., (3) Kohat, Peshawar, Gurdaspur in Punjab and Kashmir. *Tassar* silk is available in Chotanagpur and Central Provinces. *Eri Silk* grows in Rangpur, Jalpaiguri, Bogra in Bengal and Assam; *Muga Silk* in Assam and Manipur.

Linseed is a *rabi* (spring) crop, being sown from August to October and harvested from January to April. It is used in the manufacture of paints, printing ink, floor cloth, etc.

Rape and *Mustard* are also *rabi* (spring) crops. Mustard oil is favourite edible oil of Northern India, while *gingili* (til) oil and cocoanut oil are popular oils of Southern India. Oil-seeds are sown from August to October and harvested from January to April.

Sesamum is mainly autumn crop, being generally sown from May to July and harvested from October to December. A *rabi* or summer variety is also grown in certain tracts. This is sown in January and February and is harvested from May to July. Used for making margarine, soap and burning oil.

Castor seed is sown from May to July and harvested in January and February. A late variety is also grown which is generally sown in September and harvested in March and April.

Groundnut crop is sown from May to August and is harvested from November to January. A summer variety is also grown in Madras, is so called because it has pods which bury themselves under the ground in order to ripen. It is used for soap-making.

Animal Husbandry—closely associated with agriculture is animal husbandry upon which agricultural prosperity of a country depends. The Civil Veterinary Departments in provinces look after the diseases of animals. There are five veterinary colleges at Lahore, Patna, Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. The research work is carried at *Imperial Veterinary Research Institute* at Mukteswar, U.P. and its branch at Izatnagar near Bareilly. These Institutes also manufacture sera and vaccines for the use of animals. Seram Institute has also been started in Madras and Bangalore.

Area under Food & Non-Food Crops

Area under Food Crops		Area under non-Food Crops		Area under Food Crops		Area under non-Food Crops	
(000 Acres)		(000 Acres)		(000 Acres)		(000 Acres)	
1933-34	201,792	46,067	1937-38	197,322	49,541		
1934-35	196,741	43,244	1938-39	196,171	47,413		
1935-36	196,695	45,103	1939-40	197,451	47,124		
1936-37	200,766	47,426	1940-41	198,446	49,538		

Cultivable Waste

	<i>Acres (000)</i>		<i>Acres (000)</i>
1920-21	146,429	1936-37	137,065
1924-25	135,939	1938-39	142,482
1928-29	139,361	1939-40	144,516
1932-33	141,686	1940-41	143,113

Yield of Principal Crops

	<i>Rice</i> (tons 000)	<i>Wheat</i> (tons 000)	<i>Sugarcane</i> (tons 000)	<i>Groundnut</i> (tons 000)
1937-38	23,969	9,963	3,387	3,219
1938-39	25,364	10,752	4,590	3,148
1939-40	25,734	10,767	4,661	3,165
1940-41	22,191	10,005	5,807	3,702
	<i>Linseed</i> (tons 000)	<i>Rape & Mustard</i> (tons 000)	<i>Sesamum</i> (tons 000)	<i>Tea</i> (lbs 000)
1937-38	442	923	396	451,865
1938-39	466	1,120	416	452,596
1939-40	466	1,116	415	452,596
1940-41	432	1,094	433	468,882

Lands in India

	<i>Area by Professional Survey</i>	<i>Net Area Sown</i> (Acres 000)	<i>Fallow Land</i> (Acres 000)
1937-38	511,794	213,493	45,437
1938-39	512,664	209,400	48,302
1939-40	512,702	209,960	47,328
1940-41	512,923	213,963	45,253

CATTLE IN INDIA

India contains more cattle than any other country in the world. It commands a third of the world's stock of bovines. It is largely used in agricultural purposes such as ploughing and also pulling wagons.

The most important cattle-rearing regions is in the north-west. It is a belt of land extending from Kathiawar through Rajputana and the Punjab to Kashmir. The finest animal is bred in Gujarat. Other areas where cattle is reared are the Malwa plateau and the northern Madras. Sheep and goats are reared in largest numbers among the mountains of Kashmir and on the dry pastures of the Punjab and the Deccan Hills. Camels are also used in Rajputana, Sind and other places as beasts of burden. Elephants are also used for work in Assam. But the position of Indian cattle has not improved due to the following causes : (1) Refusal of orthodox Hindus to destroy old, diseased cows on religious grounds,

- (2) Lack of food, (3) Proper breeding, (4) Want of grazing lands, (5) Unscientific method of rearing animals and (6) Want of cross-breeding.

India has several excellent breeds of cattle, both for draught or milk or for both. For draught, the following varieties are the best—*Hissar* (Punjab), *Harina* (Punjab), *Kankrej* (Gujarat), *Amritmahal* (Mysore), *Malwi* (Central India). The following are famous for milk—*Red Sindi* (Sindh), *Sahiwal* (Punjab), *Gir* (Kathiawar), *Ongole* (Madras). The average milking capacity of Indian cow is only 525 lb. for the whole year, but the Sahiwal variety can produce 6,000 to 7,000 lb. in a year.

Indian buffalo is superior to Indian cow. The best known buffaloes are of Punjab, Jafferabadi buffaloes of Kathiawar and the Surti and Pandharpuri buffaloes of the Bombay Presidency.

Another cattle wealth of India is *sheep*. Estimated number of sheep in India is $4\frac{1}{2}$ crores with an average produce of $8\frac{1}{2}$ crore pounds of wool. The wool-producing provinces are N.W.F.P., Baluchistan, Sind, Punjab, U. P., Rajputana and Western Indian States. The average production of wool per sheed in India is 1.9 lb. There is an Wool Analysis Laboratory in Poona for the research of wool fibre and various other improvements.

Cattle Census in Br. India

	1940*	1935†
<i>Cattle</i> consisting of bulls, bullocks, cows, young stock	87,674,765	78,755,045
<i>Bullocks</i> consisting of male buffaloes, cows, young stock	22,415,493	28,395,379
Total bovine	110,090,258	107,150,424
Sheep	25,183,062	22,043,188
Goats	30,212,044	25,807,712
Horses & Ponies	1,000,965	1,352,472
Poultry	61,128,354	—
Pigs	1,955,396	—
Camels	428,563	526,231
Donkeys	1,157,459	1,442,783
Mules	40,270	63,206

FORESTS IN INDIA

The forests in India plays an important part in the country's agricultural and economic developments. More than one-tenth of the total area of British India is under the control of Forest Department. The areas are classified as *reserved*, *protected* and *unclassed state forests*.

The total forest area in British India under Forest Department in 1941 was 98,258 sq. miles, i.e. 11.4 of the total area.

* Excluding U. P. and Orissa. † Excluding Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.

The Forest Department is now a provincial subject. The Forest Service comprises four branches—(1) Indian Forest Service, (2) Indian Forest Engineering Service, (3) Provincial Forest Service, (4) Subordinate Forest Service.

The forest education was first started in 1876 with the founding of forest school at Dehra Dun. There are now two all India colleges at Dehra Dun known as *Indian Forest Ranger College* where ranger students from all parts of India are trained, and *Indian Forest College* for the training of officers for superior Forest Services started in 1938.

The research work is carried by Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun. There are five main branches of forest research namely Sericulture, Forest Botany, Utilisation, Entomology and Chemistry and Minor Forest products.

FOREST EARNINGS

	Revenue (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)
1938-39	30,097,367	23,130,435
1939-40	30,202,818	22,744,245
1940-41	37,105,052	23,763,614

Forests in Br. India

Area under Forests (000 Acres)	Proportion of Forests to Whole Area	Area under Forests (000 Acres)	Proportion of Forests to Whole Area
1920-21 .. 66,357	13%	1936-37 .. 67,163	13%
1924-25 .. 66,835	13%	1938-39 .. 68,148	13%
1928-29 .. 66,794	13%	1939-40 .. 68,112	13%
1932-33 .. 66,631	13%	1940-41 .. 68,218	13%

DIARY FARMING

The Dairy industry in India is in very infant stage. It is almost cottage industry confined to households. There is an Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying at Bangalore where are given 2 years courses for the diploma Dairying.

1. Buffaloes supply 45 p.c. of the total milk supply.

2. Total milk production in India according to Marketing Adviser of India is 744 million maunds.

3. Average daily *per capita* milk consumption in India has been estimated from 5.8 oz. to 10 oz. Sind is highest with 18 oz. *per capita*, followed by the Punjab with 15.2 oz., Bombay, U. P., N. W. F. P. and Bihar 7.0 oz. *per capita*; C. P. and Assam 1.8 and 1.3 oz. *per capita*.

4. Average milk yield of the Indian cow is very low. That of the she-buffalo is somewhat higher.

5. Less than one-third of the total milk supply is consumed in the form of fresh liquid milk.

6. Bulk of milk supply of the country is produced in rural areas.

IRRIGATION IN INDIA

Irrigation system in India is the largest in the world, with a total length of main and branch canals no less than 75,381 miles.

Importance of Irrigation in India can easily be estimated when it is realised that agriculture maintains about nine-tenths of population in India and rainfall is unevenly distributed, precarious and uncertain in several parts of the country.

Irrigation in India was not introduced by the British. It had been practiced in India from time immemorial. And within recent years development in this direction is almost phenomenal. Acreage irrigated in India exceeds the combined total of that in the six countries which next to her in the list of the world's largest irrigation countries, including United States.

Another figure which conveys an idea of immensity of irrigation operation in India is the quantity of water used for this purpose daily. It works out to the almost unbelievable total of about 260,000,000,000 gallons equivalent to the flow of roughly 100 rivers the size of the Thames during winter. It is not in irrigated area alone that India leads the way—her irrigation projects are among the largest in the world in many respects. Much has been heard of the vastness of Sukkur Barrage system, one of the largest, if not the largest ever undertaken by man, which commands an area $1\frac{1}{2}$ times that of Palestine. This however, though justly famous is only one of several schemes of almost equal magnitude—to say nothing of hundreds of smaller ones—in India.

Indian canal system is by far the largest in the world. Greatest schemes are Lower Chenab Canal in the Punjab, and the Sarda Canal in the United Provinces. Sarda Canal is the longest system in the world and comprises about 4,000 main line and distributaries and 1,700 miles drain.

As regards dams, India is also well to the front. The *Lloyd dam* at Bhatgarh in Bombay Presidency (which incidentally has no connection with Lloyd Barrage system in Sind) contains $21\frac{1}{2}$ million cubic feet of masonry and in this respect surpasses the famous dam at Assouan in Egypt. Though some 2,000 feet shorter than the later, the Lloyd dam is 70 feet higher than it. There is also the *Wilson dam* at Bhandaradara in Bombay Presidency, which, though not quite a mile long, towers up for 270 feet and is one of the highest dams in the world. For length, however, pride of place must be given to the *Nizamsagar dam* in Hyderabad State and for cubical content to Mettur Dam in Madras.

The former is just under 16,000 feet long and the bulk of the latter is nearly 54,700,000 cubic feet. For its novelty the Periyar dam in Madras Presidency is worthy of mention. Built under great difficulty in a narrow gorge 3,000 feet up in the Western Ghats, it has diverted a river eastward from the Indian Ocean into the Bay of Bengal by means of a tunnel over a mile long or about five times the length of London Bridge, bored through

solid rock. Equally remarkable are head works of Cauvery Delta system comprising four weirs of $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles and nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles of embankment.

Punjab is practically a land of irrigation, and other places of importance are Sind, Madras, N. W. F. United Provinces, Bihar & Orissa.

In addition to Central Board of Irrigation, there is *Central Bureau of Irrigation* for the development of Indian Irrigation. It was established in 1931 for free exchange of information on irrigation and allied subjects between engineering officers and to co-ordinate research on irrigation throughout India. There is also a *Hydro-dynamic Research Station* at Poona to study behaviour of rivers, protection of bridges, etc.

In order to assist planned development in irrigation, Government of India have recently constituted a *Central Waterways, Irrigation and Navigation Commission*. The Commission is a central fact-finding, planning and co-ordinating organisation to advise Central, Provincial and State governments in regard to waterways, irrigation and navigation problems throughout the country. A *Central Technical Power Board* has also been formed to act as central planning organisation in regard to the policy of encouraging and planning widespread development to public electric supply throughout the country.

The main types of irrigation in India are as follows:—

(1) *Lift or well-irrigation*—About 200 p.c. of irrigated areas of India are well-irrigated. Water is raised from the wells by manual labour, animal or mechanical power.

(2) *Tank or Storage Irrigation*—are reservoirs for collecting water by means of dams or tanks in which rain-water is collected and stored.

(3) *Canal Irrigation*—This is the most important type of irrigation. Canals draw their waters from rivers or from artificial storage. They are mostly seen in Northern India. The river canals are of two classes—*Inundation canals* and *Perennial canals*. Inundation canals obtain water when the river rises above a certain level. The Perennial canals draw the water from rivers which have flow of water throughout the year.

(4) *Tube-well Irrigation*—It is a recent development.

The irrigation is again divided in two classes by Government—

(1) *Productive*; the capital for the construction and extension of this class is provided out of borrowed money or by appropriation from Famine Insurance grant and which is expected to yield within ten years of their completion sufficient revenue to pay their working expenses as well as the interest or the capital expended on their construction.

(2) *Protective*—These are constructed as protection against famine and the cost of construction is provided out of current revenues or by appropriation from Famine Insurance grant.

Irrigation Statistics of Br. India

	Capital outlay (Rs. lakhs)	Area under irrigation (000 acres)
1920-21	72,35	47,783
1924-25	85,53	43,849
1928-29	112,32	48,253
1932-33	139,58	48,453
1936-37	147,06	50,158
1938-39	152,80	53,662
1939-40	153,89	54,945

Canals of India

Canals are mostly situated in Northern India. Following are the main canals of India :—

Punjab

1. *Western Jamna Canal* irrigates the districts of Rohtak and Hissar, States of Patiala and Jhind.
2. *Sirhind Canal* takes water from Sutlej River and irrigates Ludhiana, Ferozpur, Hissar and Nabha.
3. *Upper Bari-Doab Canal* takes from Ravi River and irrigates Gurdaspur, Amritsar and Lahore.
4. *Lower Chenab Canal* is the greatest canal in India and takes water from Chenab and irrigates Lyallpur.
5. *Lower Jhelum Canal*—Irrigates lands in the North-west Punjab.
6. *Upper Chenab*—Lower Bari-Doab Canal.

United Provinces

1. *Upper Ganges Canal*—it supplies water to Agra Canal and Lower Ganges Canal. It is the most important canal in U. P.
2. *Agra Canal.*
3. *Lower Ganges Canal.*
4. *Sarda Canal* takes off from Sarda river on the borders of Nepal in the north of U. P. and irrigates Rohilkhand and Western parts of Oudh. It commands some 7 million acres in Oudh and Rohilkhand. It has 4,177 miles of main canal distributaries and is the longest canal in the world. In addition some 1,500 miles of drainage channels were constructed to carry off rain-water quickly. Cost of the scheme was £7,500,000. The total cultivable area commanded by this new extension is 381,000 acres.
5. *Eastern Jamna Canal* irrigates north-eastern parts of the province.

Other Famous Canals are as follows :—

Madras—Cauvery-Mattur Project, Godavari Delta System, Kistna Delta System, Cauvery Delta System, Pennar River Canals System, Periyar System, Chicacole Minor River System, Lower Coleroom Ancient System. Tungavadra Project has been inaugurated in 1945.

Mattur Dam—on the Cauvery river inaugurated in 1934. This irrigation system is the biggest in the British Empire and the largest single block masonry reservoir in the world with a storage capacity of 93,500 million cubic feet.

Punjab—Upper Bari-Doab Canal, Western Jumna Canal, Sidhanai Canal, Sirhind Canal, Chenab Inundation Canal, Lower Chenab Canal, Lower Jhelum Canal, Upper Chenab Canal, Upper Jhelum Canal, Lower Bari-Doab Canal, Sutlej Valley Project, Haveli Project, etc.

Sind—Desert Canal, Fuleli Canal, Pinyari Canal, Lloyd Barrage, etc.

Sukkur Barrage Canals—Lloyd Barrage at Sukkur is the largest work of its kind in the world. It consists of 66 spans of 60 ft. each which can be closed by steel gates and water headed up and passed into canals. Taking off from either canal there are 7 canals in all. They have total length of 6,400 miles. The canals command gross area of $7\frac{1}{2}$ million acres, of which $5\frac{1}{2}$ million acres will eventually be irrigated. The cost was over £21 million excluding interest charges.

INDIA'S WATER-POWER

India's Industrial and Agricultural developments depend on the use of cheap power. Coal is no doubt the main source of industrial power, but in region far away from the coal fields of Bengal and Bihar, the coal costs much and hence Hydro-electric power is being rapidly developed in many parts of the country.

India now promises to be one of the leading countries of the world in the development of hydro-electric power and great strides in this direction have already been made. Her potentialities for hydro-electric development is estimated at some 39 million horse-power out of the world total of 300 millions. Only about a half million horse-power has so far been harnessed. The biggest hydro-electric undertakings are the three schemes developed and brought into operation by the Indian firm of Tata & Sons. These schemes have a continued normal capacity of 246,000 horse-power and provide electrical energy for the city of Bombay, Thana, Kalyan and greater Poona. The scheme has also been developed in Mysore, Kashmir, Madras, United Provinces, Punjab and Travancore.

The Hydro-Electric Schemes in India are of three classes—(1) Hydro-electric power for large industrial and commercial towns, such as Bombay, (2) Hydro-electric power for irrigation works, such as works connected with Upper Ganges Canal, (3) Hydro-electric works in hill stations such as Shillong.

Bombay

In Western Ghats of the Bombay Presidency, there are three great Hydro-electric power stations at *Lonavla* at the top of *Bhor Ghats*, *Nilamula* and *Andhra Valley*.

Lonavla works are situated in the Bhor Ghats where rain water is accumulated in three lakes from where it is carried by canals through pipes for generating power.

Andhra Valley Power Co. is situated on the Andhra river where reservoir has been constructed by dam across the river.

To the south-east of Bombay on the Nila Mula river, a great Hydro-electric Scheme has been carried out. All the above three schemes give electricity to Bombay, Thana, Kalyan and Poona and operate as one unit under one management.

Madras

1. *Hydro-electric* Power on the Cauvery river in Mysore supplies power to Kolar Gold fields and also to Bangalore and other towns. It is situated at Siva Samudram, 90 miles from Kolar Gold fields.

Another scheme of Mysore is *Pallivasal Hydro-electric* completed in 1940. It extends up to Alwaye on the west and up to Quilon in the south.

2. *Pykera Hydro-electric Scheme* on the Pykera River in the Nilgiri District gives power to Coimbatore, Erode, Negapatam, Trichinopoly, Madura.

3. *Mettur Hydro-electric Scheme* below Mettur dam provides energy to Salem, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, North Arcot, Chittor. This is one of the largest in the world.

4. *Papanasam Hydro-thermal Electric System*—The scheme was sanctioned in 1938. The system covers all districts south of Madras. The dam which is across the Thambraparni, is 6 miles above Papanasam Falls.

Kashmir

Hydro-electric power at Baramulla, 30 miles from Srinagar from the waters of Jhelum provides energy to Srinagar. Other two schemes are Muzaffarabad Hydro-electric Station utilising a tributary of the Kishen Ganga river and the Jammu Hydro-electric installation.

Punjab

Uhl River or Mandi Scheme supplies power to the North-Western Railway and nineteen towns such as Amritsar, Lahore, Ludhiana, Lyallpur, Jullundar, etc. The Uhl river, a tributary of Beas has been harnessed in Mandi State at a distance of about 200 miles from Lahore. The Uhl river project serves at present an area of 46,000 sq. miles and a population of 15 lakhs.

U. P.

U. P. Hydro-electric works have been opened with upper Ganges area to supply power to agriculture and industries.

Hyderabad (Deccan)

There are several Hydro-electric Schemes in this State, such as: *Tungabhadra Project* across the river Tungabhadra; *Davanoor Project*

across the river Manjira, a tributary of the Godavary; *Nizamsagar Project*; *Godavary-Kaddam Project*; *Pudua Project*, across the river Manair; *Penganga Project* on the boundary between Berar and Hyderabad; *Lower Kistna Project*; *Upper Kistna Project*.

PUBLIC HEALTH & HYGIENE

Medical Education—The medical colleges were first opened in Madras and Calcutta in 1835 and recognised by the Royal College of Surgeons in 1845. Since then there has been gradual progress of medical education in India and there are now ten University medical colleges including one exclusively for women and twenty-seven medical schools, of which eighteen are government-owned. Practically all medical colleges offer a Doctorate of Medicine, Master of Surgery, etc. Several of the colleges are offering D.P.H. or equivalent. There is also a special provision for military medical students of the Indian Medical Department.

Advisory Board of Health—A Central Advisory Board of Health was started in 1937, in which all provincial governments are associated. It provides a forum for the purpose of discussing and formulating of public health policy.

Medical Council of India was constituted in 1933 along the lines of General Medical Council of Great Britain. The Council tries to maintain uniform minimum standard of University medical qualifications for British India and tries to arrange for reciprocal recognition in British India of approved qualifications but it has no disciplinary power.

Provincial Medical Councils began to function from 1912 when the first Provincial Medical Council was started in Bombay. It is now functioning in all the provinces. The Provincial Councils keep register of qualified practitioners and supervise medical education and inspect examinations and exercise disciplinary powers over medical practitioners. and also advise local governments in regard to recognition of avrious medical qualifications.

Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign—In 1937 a movement was started against Tuberculosis which was assuming an alarming proportion every year. A sum of Rs. 76 lakhs were collected and Tuberculosis Association of India was formed to which all provincial associations are affiliated. Many sanatoria have been established throughout India.

Major Diseases of India—The major preventible diseases of India are small-pox, typhoid, dysentery, cholera and malaria. Malaria is the largest public health problem in India. Deaths from this disease number about a million and a number of cases is about 100 million per year. The average expectation of life in India is only 27 years against 63 of England and Germany.

Plague first appeared in India at Bombay in 1896 and within a short time the disease spread throughout the country. But there has been considerable diminution within the last decade.

Doctors & Nurses in India—There are in all some 50,000 doctors spread over India. This gives a doctor population ratio of one doctor to 8,000 of population. In United Kingdom the ratio is slightly under 1 to 1,000 and in U. S. A. 1 to 750 to 800 of population. There are approximately 7,000 trained nurses in India, with a nurse population ratio of 1 to 56,000. In United Kingdom, the ratio is 1 nurse to 300 of population and in U. S. A.* it is higher. There are approximately 5,000 trained midwives in India bearing a midwife population ratio of 1 to 80,000 or 1 midwife to 316 sq. miles on a basis of 1 midwife per 100 births 100,000 are required.

Ratio of Hospitals—It is estimated that there are actually in existence between 73,000 to 74,000 hospital beds of all kinds in India or a ratio of 0.24 beds per 1,000 of population. It is however estimated that in order to provide satisfactory medical service, 7 hospital beds per 1,000 of population are required which would mean provision in the sub-continent of 2,800,000 beds.

Public Health Statistics

	1921	1925	1929	1933	1937	1939	1940
Hospitals & Dispensaries	3,263	3,753	4,439	4,869	5,285	5,650	5,885
Patients treated (000)	35,463	39,424	51,640	62,618	71,048	79,057	81,815
Birthrate <i>per mille</i> .*	32	32	33	36	35	34	33
Deathrate <i>per mille</i> .*	31	24	24	23	22	22	22
Infant mortality <i>per 1000 live-births</i>	198	174	178	171	162	156	160
Expenditure on Public Health by Central & Prov. Govts. (Rs. lakhs)†	4.34	5.01	5.99	4.96	5.63	5.74	6.32

* Based on mid-year estimated population.

† Inclusive of Burma up to 1933-34.

HEAT PRODUCERS

ALBUMEN	..	Found principally in eggs, meat & mil.
GLUTEN	..	Found principally in flour.
FIBRIN	..	Found principally in fish, meat & cereals.
GELATINE	..	Found principally in gristle & bones.
CASEIN	..	Found principally in cheese, curdled milk, beans & peas.
LEGUMEN	..	Found principally in pulses.
SUGAR	..	Found in foods too numerous to mention.
STARCH	..	Found principally in vegetable matter, bread, potatoes, rice, corn flour, arrowroot, barley, sago, etc.

FOOD VALUES OF FRESH FRUITS

Source: United States Department of Agriculture.

<i>Fruit</i>	<i>Water%</i>	<i>Prot.%</i>	<i>Fat%</i>	<i>Sugar%</i>	<i>Fuel Val. Cal.</i>
Apples	84.1	0.3	0.4	11.1	290
Apricots	85.4	1.0	0.1	10.4	255
Avocados	65.4	1.7	26.4	0.6	1,200
Bananas	74.8	1.2	0.2	19.2	445
Blackberries	85.3	1.2	1.1	6.1	285
Blueberries	83.4	0.6	0.6	9.7	310
Cherries	83.0	1.1	0.5	..	310
Crabapples	81.1	0.4	0.3	12.6	340
Cranberries	87.4	0.4	0.7	4.2	240
Currants	84.7	..	0.4	5.7	275
Figs	78.0	..	0.4	16.2	395
Gooseberries	88.3	0.8	0.4	4.2	215
Grapefruit	88.8	0.5	0.2	6.5	200
Grapes	81.9	..	1.4	11.5	355
Guavas	80.6	1.0	0.6	6.1	355
Haws	75.8	2.0	0.6	..	440
Lemons	89.3	0.9	0.6	2.2	200
Limes	86.0	0.8	0.1	0.5	240
Mangoes	81.4	0.7	0.2	13.7	335
Mullberries	82.8	1.2	0.6	9.4	310
Muskmelons	92.8	0.6	0.2	5.4	125
Nectarines	82.9	0.5	0.1	11.8	305
Oranges	87.2	0.9	0.2	8.8	230
Papayas	88.7	0.6	0.1	9.0	195
Papaws	76.6	5.2	0.9	..	435
Peaches	86.9	0.5	0.1	8.78	230
Pears	82.7	0.8	0.4	8.9	315
Persimmons	78.2	0.8	0.4	15.9	395
Pineapples	85.3	0.	0.2	11.9	260
Plantains	64.7	1.3	0.4	25.3	635
Plumes	85.7	0.7	0.2	8.3	255
Pomegranates	75.8	1.5	1.2	11.9	455
Prunes	76.5	0.9	0.2	13.3	420
Quinces	85.3	0.3	0.1	6.3	260
Raspberries	80.7	1.5	1.6	7.9	375
Rhubarb	94.9	0.5	0.1	0.4	80
Strawberries	90.0	0.8	0.6	5.27	185
Water melons	92.1	0.5	0.2	6.0	140

Calories are pound. Sugar means as invert.

PERCENTAGE OF ALCOHOL IN LIQUORS

Rum	53.7	Port	23.3
Beer	4.0	Sherry	19.3
Vermouth	19.4	Claret	13.3
Brandy	53.4	Ale	7.4
Gin	51.6	Whisky	54.3
Champagne	12.61				

VITAMINS

Known vitamins are designated irrespectively:—A, B₁ (or B), B₂ (or G), C, D, E. All vitamins are present in natural foodstuffs on which and not on commercial vitamin concentrates, man should ordinarily rely for their supply.

Vitamin A is derived directly or indirectly from carotene pigments of plants. *Principal sources*—green and yellow vegetables, fish, liver oil, egg-yolk, milk, butter, cream and cheese, curd, ghee, liver and liver-oil. *Functions*—promotes growth; necessary for reproduction; preserves structure and functions of epithelial tissues; maintains resistance to infection.

Effects of deficiency—failure of growth, interference with ovulation, night blindness, dry skin, 'toad'-skin and infections of eye, nasal passages, throat, lungs, stomach, intestines, skin, urinary tract, and (in females) reproductive tract.

Vitamin B₁ or B—*Principal sources*—yeast, whole cereals, pulses, legumes nuts, green vegetables, eggs, cheese, fish-roe, kidney, liver. *Functions*—necessary for carbohydrate metabolism and neuro-muscular efficiency.

Effects of deficiency—Lack of appetite, impaired growth or loss of weight, poor digestion, sluggish bowel action, cardiac disorder, fatigue, nervousness, neuritis, disturbed lactation, beri-beri.

Vitamin B₂ (or G)—belongs to the flavin group of pigments. *Principal sources*—yeast, milk, green vegetables, lean meat, liver, kidneys. *Functions*—helps to sustain health of skin, mucous membrane of alimentary tract, and nervous system. *Deficiency*—failure of growth, sore tongue, and mouth, skin lesions, gastro-intestinal inflammations, eye diseases, pellagra.

Vitamin 'C'—*Deficiency*—Scurvy; *Principal sources*—fruit amla, sprouted grains to be taken raw, fresh fruits.

Vitamin 'D'—*Deficiency*—rickets in infants and children and osteomalasia which means 'softening of bones' chiefly among women in child-bearing period; *Principal sources*—whole milk, butter, ghee, egg yolk and fish liver oil and sun.

Vitamin 'K'—was discovered by Prof. Dam of Copenhagen. This vitamin seems to be of use in adding to the clotting power of blood and in anaemic conditions. Vitamin 'K' probably acts on some process in the liver and is reported to be useful in arresting dental decay: *Principal*

sources—occurs in green vegetables, pig-liver, fat, hemp-seed, spinach and alfalfa.

CALORIES

In order to live healthily we must have an adequate number of calories in our daily diet. A calorie is a certain amount of heat or energy.

A car gets its energy from petrol; the human body from food. Not all foods have the same value as energy-providers. The amount of energy a given food will supply depends on its calorific content. If we partake an excessive number of calories the surplus is stored as fat.

How many calories do we need? The answer depends mainly on the nature of our work. A manual worker requires more than a sedentary worker. An adult man needs 2,600 to 3,000 calories daily from food and a child of 10 about 1,800.

The following list, compiled by experts, gives the approximate number of calories required each day by people in different occupations:—

Teacher or clerk	2,600	Painter	3,600
Tailor	2,750	Labourer (moderate work) ..	3,610
Doctor	2,760	University oarsman	4,080
Housewife or typist	2,800	Blacksmith	4,120
Soldier (peace-time)	3,150	Brickmaker	4,640
Shoemaker	3,160	Stonemason	4,850
Carpenter	3,190	Woodcutter	5,500
Metal worker	3,500		

As a general rule, women are considered to need about four-fifths of the number of calories required by men doing the same work.

Calories for Indians—A man in India on an average requires 2,500 calories a day, while an Indian woman would require 2,100 to 2,800 calories a day.

FOOD FACTS TO REMEMBER

Protein is needed for the growth and repair of the body. It is found in milk, meat, fish, eggs, pulses, nuts and cereal grains.

Carbohydrates and fats are the body's chief sources of fuel. The most important carbohydrates are sugar and starch. *Calcium* is needed for building strong bones and for good growth and health. The best sources of calcium is milk, green leafy vegetables are also a good source. *Iron* is needed to make blood. Whole cereals, pulses and leafy vegetables are among the foods richest in iron.

MILK

	Goat	Cow	Human
Water	86.45	87.40	86.40
Dry substance85	.75	.90
Casein	3.00	3.00	1.00
Albumin	1.00	.40	1.20
Fat	4.20	3.75	3.50
Sugar	4.50	4.70	7.00

Composition of a Balanced Diet in India

[Standard put forward by the Nutrition Advisory Committee of the Reserve Fund Association for adult per day].

	oz.		oz.
Cereals	14	Milk	10
Pulses	3	Sugar and Gur	2
Green leafy Vegetables	4	Vegetable oil or Ghee	2
Root Vegetables	3	Fish & Meat	3
Other Vegetables	3	Eggs	one
Fruits	3		

Composition of a Balanced Indian Diet

(Suggested in the Bombay Plan)

	oz.		oz.
Cereals	16	Fruits	2
Pulses	3	Fats & Oils	1.5
Sugar	2	Whole milk or	8
Vegetables	6	Meat, Fish & Eggs	2.3

FLESH MAKERS

Time taken to digest different kinds of food in the stomach.

	H.	M.		H.	M.
Rice, boiled	1	0	Turkey, roasted	2	30
Sago, boiled	1	45	Turkey, boiled	2	25
Tapioca, boiled	2	0	Goose, roasted	2	30
Barley, boiled	2	0	Lamb, fresh boiled	2	30
Milk, boiled	2	0	Eggs, fresh, hard boiled	3	30
Milk, raw	2	15	Eggs, fresh, soft boiled	3	0
Venison Steak, boiled	1	35	Eggs, fresh, fried	3	30
Eggs, fresh, raw	2	0	Ducks, wild, roasted	4	30
Eggs, fresh, whipped	1	30	Butter, melted	3	30
Custard, baked	2	45	Cheese, old, strong, raw	3	30
Codfish, cured, dried, boiled	2	0	Soup, marrow bones, boiled	4	15
Trout, Salmon, fresh boiled	1	30	Soup, beans, boiled	3	0
Bass, striped, fresh boiled	3	0	Soup, barley, boiled	1	30
Salmon, salted, boiled	4	0	Soup, mutton, boiled	3	30
Oysters, fresh, raw	2	55	Chicken Soup, boiled	3	0
Oysters, fresh, roasted	3	15	Oyster Soup, boiled	3	30
Beef, fresh lean, rare roasted	3	30	Hash Meat and Vegetables (warm)	2	30
Beef, fresh, dry roasted	3	30	Beans, pod boiled	2	30
Beefsteak, boiled	3	0	Bread, wheat, fresh baked	3	30
Beef with salt, only boiled	2	45	Cake, baked	3	0
Beef, fresh lean, fried	4	0	Dumpling, apple, boiled	3	0
Beef, old hard salted, boiled	4	15	Apples, sour, hard, raw	2	50
Pork, steak, broiled	3	15			

Pork, fat and lean, roasted	3 15	Apples, sour, mellow, raw	2 0
Pork, recently salted, fried	4 15	Apples, sweet, mellow, raw	1 30
Mutton, fresh roasted	.. 3 15	Parsnips, boiled	.. 2 30
Mutton, fresh broiled	.. 3 0	Carrots, orange, boiled	.. 3 15
Mutton, fresh boiled	.. 3 0	Beets, boiled	.. 3 45
Veal, fresh broiled	.. 4 0	Turnips, boiled	.. 3 30
Veal, fresh fried	.. 4 30	Potatoes, boiled	.. 3 30
Fowls, domestic, boiled	.. 4 0	Potatoes, baked	.. 2 30
Fowls, domestic, roasted	.. 4 0	Cabbage, head, raw	.. 2 30
Ducks, domestic, roasted	.. 4 0	Cabbage, head, boiled	.. 4 30

Births & Deaths per 1000 in India

	<i>Birth per mille</i>	<i>Death per mille</i>		<i>Birth per mille</i>	<i>Death per mille</i>
1901-1910	.. 38	34	1941	.. 32	22
1911-1920	.. 37	34	1942	.. 29	21
1921-1930	.. 35	26	1943	.. 26	23
1930-1940	.. 34	23			

Infant Mortality

(Per 1,000 living births under one year)

South Africa (1939)	.. 49	France (1940)	.. 91
Canada (1940)	.. 56	Ireland (1940)	.. 65
U. S. A. (1940)	.. 46	Italy (1940)	.. 104
Ceylon (1940)	.. 149	Netherlands (1940)	.. 39
India (1938)	.. 167	Poland (1938)	.. 140
Japan (1938)	.. 144	Rumania (1940)	.. 189
Germany (1940)	.. 63	England & Wales (1940)	.. 55
Belgium (1940)	.. 89	Sweden (1940)	.. 39
Denmark (1940)	.. 50	Switzerland (1940)	.. 39
Spain (1938)	.. 119	Australia (1938)	.. 38

World Death Rate per 1,000

South Africa (1939)	.. 9.4	Denmark (1940)	.. 10.4
Canada (1940)	.. 9.7	Hungary (1940)	.. 14.4
U. S. A. (1940)	.. 10.8	Italy (1940)	.. 13.6
Ceylon (1940)	.. 20.6	Norway (1940)	.. 10.7
India (1939)	.. 21.8	Netherlands (1940)	.. 9.9
Japan (1938)	.. 17.6	Poland (1938)	.. 13.8
Germany (1940)	.. 12.7	United Kingdom (1940)	.. 13.9
France (1939)	.. 15.3	Sweden (1940)	.. 11.4
Greece (1939)	.. 13.0	Switzerland (1940)	.. 12.1
Ireland (1940)	.. 14.2	Australia (1940)	.. 9.7
Belgium (1940)	.. 16.1	Yugoslavia (1939)	.. 15.0

World Birth Rate per 1,000

South Africa (1939)	.. 25.4	Portugal (1939)	.. 26.5
Canada (1940)	.. 21.4	Yugoslavia (1940)	.. 25.9
U. S. A. (1940)	.. 17.9	United Kingdom (1940)	.. 15
Egypt (1938)	.. 43.4	England (1939)	.. 15.5
India (1939)	.. 33	Ireland (1939)	.. 19.1
Japan (1938)	.. 27	Italy (1940)	.. 23.4
France (1939)	.. 14.6	Norway (1939)	.. 16.0
Greece (1939)	.. 23.5	Netherlands (1940)	.. 20.8
Poland (1938)	.. 24.5	Sweden (1940)	.. 15
Germany (1940)	.. 20	Switzerland (1940)	.. 15.2
Spain (1938)	.. 17.3	Australia (1940)	.. 18
Finland (1938)	.. 21.0		

**Birth, Death and Infant Mortality in Br. India
per 1,000 Population**

	<i>Birth</i>	<i>Death</i>	<i>Infant mortality</i>		<i>Birth</i>	<i>Death</i>	<i>Infant mortality</i>
1930	.. 33	25	178	1936	.. 36	23	162
1931	.. 35	25	179	1937	.. 35	22	162
1932	.. 34	22	169	1938	.. 34	24	167
1933	.. 36	23	171	1939	.. 34	22	156
1934	.. 34	25	187	1940	.. 33	22	160
1935	.. 35	24	164				

Births and Deaths in British India

	<i>Births</i>	<i>Deaths</i>		<i>Births</i>	<i>Deaths</i>
1931	.. 9,135,890	6,615,099	1936	.. 9,566,379	6,111,358
1932	.. 9,054,506	5,805,666	1937	.. 9,388,457	6,112,375
1933	.. 9,678,876	6,096,787	1938	.. 9,398,011	6,685,120
1934	.. 9,288,897	6,856,244	1939	.. 9,346,145	6,165,234
1935	.. 9,299,021	6,331,576			

Income & Expenditure on Public Health

	<i>Income</i>	<i>Expenditure</i>		<i>Income</i>	<i>Expenditure</i>
1932	.. 3,76,66,729	3,77,02,062	1936	.. 3,65,77,018	3,62,26,831
1933	.. 3,83,05,442	3,81,68,584	1937	.. 3,72,92,737	3,77,66,178
1934	.. 3,87,77,600	3,82,53,633	1938	.. 3,87,40,381	3,89,48,617
1935	.. 3,57,23,642	3,51,18,086			

Laboratories and Medical Researches

1. *Central Advisory Board of Health*—was constituted in 1937. The Board consists of representatives of the Central Government, Provincial Governments and of certain Indian States. It provides a forum for the discussion and formulation of public health policy in India.

2. *Indian Research Fund Association*—is the leading organisation in India concerned with medical research. It is supervised by Advisory Committees. These committees deal with malaria, cholera, plague, maternal mortality and nutrition.

3. *Central Research Institute, Kasauli*—Manufactures vaccines such as anti-typhoid, anti-cholera and anti-venom serum for Civil and Military requirements, also well known for its research on major epidemics and also endemic diseases. The Institute serves as a centre of reference for anti-rabic treatment.

4. *All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta*—There are sections such as Public Health Administration, Vital Statistics, Epidemiology, Malaria and Nutrition and Biochemistry. The Institute has dual function, as a centre for advanced studies in public health and as a centre for research.

5. *Central Drugs Control Laboratory, Calcutta*—was established in March, 1937 for comprehensive survey of drugs all over India.

6. *School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta*—The school and the Carmichael Hospital for Tropical Diseases which is primarily a research hospital attached to the school are of the status of a provincial institution under the Government of Bengal, but actually both have an all India aspect. It has the following departments:—(1) Tropical Medicine. (2) Bacteriology and Pathology. (3) Protozoology. (4) Entomology. (5) Pharmacology. (6) Chemistry. (7) Anæmia and respiratory disease department. (8) Helminthology. (9) Public Health Laboratory Practice.

7. *Haffkine Institute, Bombay*—The Institute acts as a centre for the manufacture of plague vaccine for the whole of India and centre for the manufacture of anti-rabic vaccine for Bombay Presidency.

8. *King Institute of Preventive Medicine, Guindy, Madras.*

9. *Pasteur Institute of India, Kasauli*—Centre of Anti-rabic treatment.

10. *Pasteur Institute of Southern India, Coonoor.*

11. *King Edward VII Memorial Pasteur Institute and Medical Research Institute, Shillong.*

12. *Malaria Institute of India, Kasauli*—Carries mainly Malaria research in India and co-ordinates to a large extent the anti-malarial operations conducted by Central and Provincial Governments.

13. *Pasteur Institute, Calcutta*—This institute is a part of School of Tropical Medicine.

14. *Pasteur Institute, Bombay*—This is a part of Haffkine Institute, Bombay.

15. *Pasteur Institute, Patna.*

16. *Imperial Veterinary Research Institute, Mukteswar*—Started in 1893. It is now a fully equipped research institute for veterinary research. It also manufactures protective sera and vaccines. It has a branch station at Izatnagar (Bareilly).

17. *Nutrition Research Laboratories, Coonoor.*

18. *Sir Dorabji Tata Trust*—The Trust has established in 1940 Tata Memorial Hospital for cancer at a capital of Rs. 23 lakhs and maintained

at an average annual cost of Rs. 4 lakhs. There is also Tata Graduate School of Social Work which trains young men and women from universities in social work. It is the first institution of its kind in India.

Medical Council of India

The Medical Council of India was brought into existence by the Indian Medical Council Act of 1933, which placed on it responsibility for the maintenance of a uniform minimum standard of higher qualifications in medicine for the whole of British India. The Council carried out a detailed inspection of all Indian Medical Colleges and their examinations, and as a result the medical qualifications of all the Universities except those of the Andhra University, have now been reorganized.

The Medical Council of India has also framed a series of recommendations for professional education, which now governs the requirements and standards of the University medical education in India.

The furtherance of the recognition of the Indian medical qualifications in countries outside British India, with its corollary, the reciprocal recognition in this country of approved qualifications of such countries, is another function of the Council. Non-Indian qualifications recognized by the Council till now, are only those which have been accepted on basis of reciprocity. The General Medical Council of Great Britain has accepted for registration in the United Kingdom all the degrees granted by the British Indian Universities, which have been approved by this Council.

There are also various Provincial Acts of Medical Registration which provide for the formation of a Medical Council in each province, where such legislation obtains, and the registration of qualified medical practitioners. The functions of these Councils include, in addition, the supervision of medical education, inspection of examinations, exercise of disciplinary control over medical practitioners and that of advising the Local Government recognition of the various medical qualifications.

EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION

University Education

Introduction of English Education—The first proposal of founding a University in India was made by the Council of Education in Bengal in the year 1845, but was not accepted by the Board of Directors of the East India Company, who considered the scheme somewhat premature. The famous despatch of Sir Charles Wood in 1854, soon after the renewal of Charter of East India Company in the previous year, brought the question once more to the front. "Among many subjects of importance" proclaimed the epoch-making document, "none have stronger claim to our attention than that of education. It is one of our most sacred duties to the nation, to be the means, as far as it lies, of conferring upon the natives of India those vast moral and material blessings which flow from the general diffusion of useful knowledge and which India may under Providence derive from her connection with England." It was in accordance

with this declared policy, the foundations of University education was laid in the country.

The foundation of University Education was laid in this country with the establishment of the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in the year 1857, the necessary legislation incorporating them having been passed respectively on January 24th, July 18th and September 15th of the year. The jurisdiction of the Calcutta University which at the beginning included practically all Northern India, was soon found to be unwieldy and it was therefore broken up by the establishment of two additional Universities, the University of the Punjab which was founded in 1882 and the University of Allahabad which followed five years later in 1887.

The landmark in the history of Indian Universities was the appointment by Lord Curzon of a University Commission in the year 1902. The recommendations of the Commission were mainly in the direction of reforms in the constitution of Universities. An enactment for amending the law relating to Universities in India came into effect on 1st September, 1904 and laid new responsibilities upon Universities as regards both their control of affiliated colleges and their own teaching functions. It also specified the provision of instruction as one of their duties and gave them the power of appointing professors and lecturers, of holding and managing endowments and of erecting, equipping and maintaining Universities libraries, laboratories and museums. Though the bulk of the teaching continued to be in the affiliated colleges, a certain amount of higher instruction now began to be concentrated under University management. Territorial limits were assigned to each University. A systematic inspection of colleges by the University was established.

Another important advancement was the Government of India's resolution in 1913 which pleaded for the establishment of additional university of teaching type. It reaffirmed the policy of reliance on private effort on secondary education ; it recommended an increase in the salaries of teachers and an improvement in the amounts of grants in and it insisted on the proper attention being paid to the formation of character in the education given to scholars of all scholars. It advocated a separate university for each leading province in India. So new universities were started under official auspices, but a new departure was made in 1916 and 1920. The two Universities were established to serve the special needs of the Hindus and Mahomedans, founded largely on the efforts of the communities. They were established by the Acts of the Legislature. The "Benares Hindu University" came into existence in 1916 and the "Aligarh Muslim University" in 1920. The provision of faculties of oriental learning and religious instruction is a special feature of these institutions.

With the constitution of Bihar and Orissa into a separate province, a new University under the name of "Patna University" was started at Patna in 1917. In Indian States, three Universities were started ; Mysore University (1916) in Mysore, Osmania University (1918) in Hyderabad and Travancore University (1937) in Travancore. The noteworthy feature

of the Osmania University is the teaching of all subjects through the medium of Urdu.

Another landmark in the University history is the Calcutta University Commission presided over by Sir Michael Sadler (1917-1919). One of the primary recommendations was that Universities should be relieved of their intermediate work, so that they may be able to concentrate attention on real University teaching and the advancement of higher learning. The Commission also advocated the establishment of unitary and residential Universities.

The Government of India Act of 1919 altered the course of educational administration in India. Education became a *transferred* subject under the charge of a minister in governors' provinces, though European education was kept as 'reserved' subject. The education was further decentralised by the Government of India Act of 1935.

Several new Universities were now established all over India, largely on the lines recommended by the Sadler Commission. The "University of Lucknow" was incorporated in December 1920. The "Dacca University" came into existence on the 18th July, 1920. The characteristic feature of the Dacca University is the special representation of Muslim community on University bodies and a Hall provided for Muslim students. The "Delhi University" was established in 1922.

The Central Provinces got its new "Nagpur University" in 1923. The "Agra University" was established in the year 1927 which also caters to the needs of Rajputana and Central India. The notable feature in connection with the Universities in United Provinces is that except in the case of Aligarh and Benares, Intermediate education has been removed from their control with the formation of a separate Board of High School and Intermediate Education, established by a special Act of Legislature. University of Dacca has also established its Intermediate Board.

Another new university has been started in 1943 in Orissa known as "Utkal University."

The year 1926 witnessed important University development in Madras Province. "*Andhra University*" was established in this year and was located at Waltair. Another University was established at Chidambaram known as "*Annamalai University*" by the princely donation of 20 lakhs of Rupees by Raja Sir Annamalai Chetty.

The types of Universities in India are as follows:—'*Affiliating University*', i.e., a University which recognises external colleges offering instruction in its courses of studies: A '*Teaching University*' is one in which some or all of the teaching is controlled and conducted by teachers appointed by the University. A '*Unitary University*' is one usually localised in a single centre, in which the whole of the teaching is conducted by teachers appointed by or under the control of the University.

Department of Education—Government of India established a Department known as "Department of Education, Health and Lands" in 1910 under a member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. There is an Educational Adviser and a joint Secretary of this Department.

Administration—The education in India is entirely under the control of provincial ministers. Directors of Public Instruction in all provinces are the permanent heads of the Department of Education. But higher education is controlled by the universities.

Government of India have however retained under their immediate control all education in the Centrally Administered Areas and they also deal with matters concerning universities of Benares, Aligarh and Delhi.

Post-War Educational Development—The final scheme of the Central Advisory Board of Education for post-war educational development in India on the basis of Sargent Report has been issued.

The scheme, based on the memorandum prepared by Mr. John Sargent, Educational Adviser to the Government of India, aims at providing all children of India with a certain basic education and enabling those who show promise to pass on to High Schools, Universities and other institutions for further education. It also meets the requirements of the country for technical education side by side with practical training. The scheme deals with various stages of school and University education, technical, commercial, art and adult education; the problem of the training of teachers; the health of school children; the education of the handicapped; and recreative and social activities.

Compulsion—Compulsion, according to the scheme, will be applied between the ages of 6 and 14. Primary and middle school education will be free. Entry to high schools will be on a selective basis: generally those pupils will be admitted who show promise of taking full advantage of the education provided. High schools will be of two main types, academic and technical. The objective of both will be to provide a good all-round education combined with some preparation in the later stages for the careers which pupils will enter on leaving schools.

In the sphere of university education, it is suggested that a committee should co-ordinate the activities of the various universities, in order to avoid overlapping and to maintain standards and should also allocate any grants provided by the Central Government in aid of substantial new developments.

The scheme lays special emphasis on the quality of teachers at every stage of national education and recommends proposals for improving both recruitment and training.

40-Year Scheme—The scheme is spread over 40 years. During the first five-year or the preparatory period, the bulk of the expenditure will be on organising personnel, experiment and research and in establishing colleges and schools for training teachers of different types. Thereafter, the incidence of expenditure will depend largely on the expansion of the high school system. It is estimated that the increased cost of education will be Rs. 10 crores in the first five years, Rs. 23 crores in the tenth year, and Rs. 61 crores in the 20th year. The peak of expenditure on the scheme will be reached about the 40th year when the approximate incidence of the increased cost of education is estimated to be Rs. 312 crores gross or Rs. 277 crores net per annum.

Central Advisory Board of Education—which was abolished in 1923 as a measure of economy was revived by the Government of India in August, 1935. It consists of all Provincial Ministers of Education or their Directors of Public Instruction, Representatives of the Inter-University Board, the Legislative Assembly, the Council of State and Nominees of the Government of India. Its main functions are to serve as a clearing house of ideas and to act as a distributing centre of educational information for India.

There is also a *Bureau of Education* under the control of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India for dealing specially with the collection and dissemination of literature relating to educational problems in the various provinces.

Inter-University Board—The need of co-operation in the work of Universities in India was expressed by the Calcutta University Commission. The Indian Universities Conference held at Simla in 1924 passed a resolution unanimously recommending to the Universities that it was desirable that an Inter-University organisation should be established for (1) Bureau of information, (2) Exchange of Professors, (3) co-ordination of University work, (4) obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other Universities, (5) serving as appointments Bureau for Indian Universities, etc.

Sidelights of the Universities—The Calcutta University has over 40,000 students on its rolls, Bombay comes second with 35,300. The Calcutta University has 90 colleges (including Viswa Bharati) affiliated to it, while Madras has 77, Punjab 68 and Bombay 50. The Calcutta University library has as many as 206,000 volumes. Benares comes second with 100,000 and Madras third with just over 98,000. Bombay has 70,000.

Benares tops the list, as the University which offers courses in the largest number of subjects. The 40 subjects it offers including mining and metallurgy, industrial chemistry, pharmaceuticals, ceramics, glass technology and oriental learning. Bombay's speciality is chemical engineering and economics and sociology. Calcutta has statistics and anthropology for post-graduate courses. Dacca has agricultural chemistry and soil science. Madras University has a number of diploma courses in such subjects as politics and public administration, statistics, co-operation, Indian music, librarianship, journalism and geography. Travancore University has a special course in textile technology.

The cost of living is cheapest in the Annamalai University in South India, where it is about Rs. 20 per month. It is the highest in Bombay and comes to just under Rs. 50. Aligarh, Dacca and Mysore are among the less costly places, while in Benares and Delhi living is costlier.

Examination fees are highest in Travancore, next come Andhra and Calcutta Universities, followed by Bombay, Benares and Delhi. The fees for the B. A. Examination, for instance is Rs. 48 in Travancore, Rs. 45 in Andhra and Calcutta, Rs. 40 in Bombay, Rs. 36 in Benares. In almost all other Universities it is Rs. 30.

The newest university in India is the *Utkal University* at Cuttack.

The Maharashtra University at Poona will be the youngest University in India. This University scheme has just been sanctioned by the Government of Bombay.

Primary Education—At present there is no system of primary education in most parts of British India, though the number of rural and urban primary schools is slowly increasing. Most of the primary schools are run by local boards and municipalities. From primary schools, students may pass to a secondary schools which culminates in a Matriculation or school-leaving examination. In recent years eight provincial legislatures have passed Primary Education Acts authorising the introduction of compulsory education at their option within any part of their jurisdiction after obtaining Government sanction for the purpose.

Literacy in India—In 1921 the total number of literates in British India was less than 15 millions. There was a small increase of 3 millions in the decade 1921-31, but by 1941 the number of literates had exceeded the 37 million mark. The proportion of literates in the total population thus increased from 6 per cent to 13 per cent in the twenty years.

Total Scholars (In all institutions)

1936-37	14,146,038	1940-41	15,769,890
1937-38	13,831,707	1941-42	15,993,187
1938-39	14,508,467	1942-43	15,373,727
1939-40	15,216,369				

Percentage of Total Scholars (Percentage of total Scholars to Population)

1935-36	5.09	1939-40	5.95
1936-37	5.20	1940-41	6.08
1937-38	5.38	1941-42	5.4
1938-39	5.64	1942-43	5.19

All India Expenditure on Education

All India Expenditure on Education				Rs.
		Rs.		
1933-34	..	26,17,65,186	1938-39	27,81,99,492
1934-35	..	26,52,11,420	1939-40	29,08,76,321
1935-36	..	25,71,06,470	1940-41	29,84,03,205
1936-37	..	26,40,17,864	1941-42	30,85,79,543
1937-38	..	26,98,64,484	1942-43	31,61,42,080

University Statistics (1942-43)

		In constituent Colleges or University Depts.	In affiliated Colleges	No. of Graduates
Calcutta (Affitg. & Teaching)	(1857)	1,821	37,435	4,132
Bombay*	(1857)	213	26,591	2,240
Madras	(1857)	6,264	13,035	1,606

Punjab*	(1882)	1,919	24,352	3,091
Allahabad (Teaching)	(1887)	2,495		1,045
Hindu*	(1916)	3,937	116	393
Mysore	(1916)	5,109		465
Patna (Affiliating)	(1917)		8,169	580
Osmania (Teaching)	(1918)	2,044	1,076	181
Muslim (Unitary)	(1920)	2,285		354
Lucknow (Unitary & Teachg.)	(1920)	2,432	149	501
Dacca	(1921)	1,424		279
Delhi (Teaching)	(1922)	2,171		342
Nagpur (Affiltg. & Teaching)	(1923)	365	4,251	470
Andhra	(1926)	481	5,103	447
Agra (Affiliating)	(1927)		6,030	1,147
Annamalai (Unitary)	(1929)	1,004		136
Travancore (Teaching)	(1937)	2,286	1,573	360
Utkal University	(1943)			

* Figures for 1941-42.

No. of Educational Institutions

1920-21	..	180,380	1938-39	..	230,526
1924-25	..	203,232	1939-40	..	235,489
1928-29	..	232,429	1940-41	..	232,766
1932-33	..	229,771	1941-42	..	228,053
1936-37	..	227,940	1942-43	..	219,357

Presses, Newspapers & Periodicals

	Presses	Newspapers	Periodicals	Books (English)	Books (Indian)
1920-21	3,583	955	2,197	1,676	9,815
1924-25	4,994	1,342	3,018	2,283	14,591
1928-29	5,729	1,642	2,781	2,546	14,348
1932-33	6,410	1,594	2,693	2,691	13,401
1936-37	7,872	2,123	3,046	2,556	14,629
1938-39	8,467	2,752	3,301	3,298	14,137
1939-40	8,548	2,872	3,113	3,442	14,820
1940-41	8,758	2,609	2,880	2,841	14,117

All-India Cost per pupil

1934-35	..	Rs. 20-11-0	1938-39	..	Rs. 20-0-0
1935-36	..	" 20-13-4	1939-40	..	" 19-12-6
1936-37	..	" 20-14-2	1940-41	..	" 19-10-6

Museums in India

1. Indian Museum, Cal. (1886).
2. Patna Museum, Patna.
3. Archaeological Museum, Sar-nath.

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|----------------------------------|---|
| 4. Prov. Museum, Lucknow. | drum. |
| 5. Curzon Museum, Muttra. | 20. Bangiya Sahitya Parisad, Calcutta. |
| 6. Fort Museum, Delhi. | 21. Barendra Research Museum, Rajshahi. |
| 7. Central Museum, Lahore. | 22. Dacca Museum, Dacca. |
| 8. Archæological Museum, Taxila. | 23. Ashutosh Museum (Cal. Univ.) |
| 9. Govt. Museum, Peshawar. | 24. Darjeeling Museum, Darjeeling. |
| 10. Jaipur Museum, Jaipur. | 25. Victoria Museum, Karachi. |
| 11. Udaipur Museum, Udaipur. | 26. Khiching Museum, Mayurbhanj. |
| 12. Baroda Museum, Baroda. | 27. Gauhati Museum, Assam. |
| 13. Ajmere Museum, Ajmere. | 28. Harappa Museum, Harappa. |
| 14. State Museum, Hyderabad. | 29. Mahenjodaro Museum, Mahenjodaro. |
| 15. Prince of Wales Museum, Bom. | 30. Bombay National History Museum. |
| 16. Central Museum, Nagpur. | |
| 17. Govt. Museum, Madras. | |
| 18. Bangalore Museum, Bangalore. | |
| 19. Trivandrum Museum, Trivan- | |

Indian Universities

<i>Name</i>	<i>Vice-Chancellors</i>
Calcutta (1857)	Dr. Radha Binode Pal.
Bombay (1857)	B. J. Wadia.
Madras (1857)	Dr. A. Lakshmanaswami Mudaliar.
Allahabad (1887)	Dr. Amarnath Jha.
Punjab (1882)	Sir Abdul Rahman.
Lucknow (1920)	S. M. Habibullah.
Nagpur (1923)	Mr. Justice W. R. Puranik.
Dacca (1920)	Khan Bahadur Capt. Dr. M. Hassan.
Patna (1927)	Mr. C. P. N. Sinha.
Aligarh Muslim (1920)	Dr. Sir Ziauddin Ahmed.
Delhi (1922)	Sir Maurice Gwyer.
Agra (1927)	Dr. J. C. Chatterjee.
Benares Hindu (1915)	Sir S. Radhakrishnan.
Andhra (1926)	Sir C. R. Reddy.
Annamalai Chidambaram (1929)	Mr. M. Rathnaswami.
Mysore (1916)	Mr. T. Singaravelu Mudaliar.
Osmania, Hyderabad (1918)	Mr. S. M. Azam.
Travancore (1938)	Sir C. P. Ramaswami Iyer.
Utkal University (1943)	Mr. P. Parija.
Indian Women's University (1916)	Mrs. Sarada Mehta.
Biswabharati, Bolpur (1921)	Dr. A. N. Tagore (<i>President</i>).
Gurukula University (1902)	

Scientific & Technical Academies in India

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal</i> , founded by Sir William Jones in 1784. | 2. <i>Indian Museum, Calcutta</i> , founded in 1866 which is the main centre of zoological research. |
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3. *Madras Literary Society*—An Auxiliary to the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, started about 1833.

4. *Agri-Horticultural Society of India, Calcutta*, founded in 1820.

5. *Bombay Natural History Society, Bombay*, founded in 1883.

6. *Haffkine Institute, Bombay*, well-known centre of research in preventive medicine, started in 1899.

7. *Indian Association for Cultivation of Science, Calcutta*, started in 1876 by Dr. Mahendralal Sarkar.

8. *National Academy of Sciences, Allahabad*, founded in 1936.

9. *Indian Academy of Sciences, Bangalore*, started in 1934 with a view to holding regular meetings for reading and discussion of original scientific contributions.

10. *National Institute of Sciences, Calcutta*, for co-ordinating the work of various scientific institutions and Govt. scientific departments and services, was inaugurated in January, 1935.

11. *Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute (Poona)*—Started on 6th July, 1917, on the 80th birthday of the famous orientalist, Sir R. G. Bhandarkar with the object of publishing oriental editions of text-books on antiquities, to provide up-to-date library and to train students in research work.

12. *Indian Chemical Society*—University of College of Science, Calcutta; founded in 1924.

13. *Indian Institute of Sciences*—Bangalore, started in 1911. It offers post-graduate work in five main-branches of science, namely: Physics Cosmic Ray research, general Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Biochemistry, Electrical Technology, and Aeronautical Engineering.

14. *Indian Mathematical Society*—Calcutta, founded in 1907. It has a library which is located at Fergusson College, Poona.

15. *Indian Society of Oriental Art*—Calcutta, started with the object of reviving interest in Indian Art and Culture.

16. *Institute of Engineers*—8, Gokhale Rd., Calcutta founded in 1921. Its main object is to promote and advance the science, practice and business of engineering in all the branches, to diffuse information on all matters affecting engineering, to regulate and elevate the technical and general knowledge of persons engaged in engineering and also to advise and control education in technical colleges and schools. The Institute received Royal Charter in September, 1935. The privilege entitles the members to describe them as 'Chartered Engineers (India).'

17. *P. E. N. (India Centre)*—The Indian Centre of P. E. N. was started in Bombay in 1933 by Sophia Wadia for poets, editors, essayists, novelists (P. E. N.).

18. *Bose Institute*—Established by Sir J. C. Bose at Calcutta in 1917 to carry researches on plant life.

19. *Waterways Experiment Station*—Eleven miles from Poona at the foot of the Khadakwasla Dam on Lake Fife is the Indian Waterways Experiment Station, the first and only of its kind in India. Started in 1919 by the Government of Bombay, it has now been taken over by the Government of India. Investigations are carried out here with the aid of small or semi-large models to solve problems, both basic and specific, concerning irrigation and river training.

THE LANGUAGES

This diversity of language in India is set as a bar to a common Indian national unity. But this oft-quoted theory has no practical basis, because it has been clearly demonstrated in the case of many countries, such as England, Switzerland, France, Spain, Soviet Russia, China, Mexico, etc., that multiplicity of language is no bar to nationhood. In England alone, we have English, Welsh, Gaelic, besides dialects of these. Moreover many of the so-called languages are mere small tribal speeches such as those belonging to the Tibeto-Chinese family found only on the northern and north-eastern borders of India, and spoken of by less than one per cent. of the entire population of India; there are some insignificant languages which do not really belong to India.

According to official estimate there are 225 languages current in India. Bengali is spoken by 92 per cent. of the population of Bengal, and hence linguistically Bengali is more homogeneous than any other provinces in India. In Central Provinces Hindi prevails in the north, while Marhati predominates in the west, centre and Berar. People of Madras speak Dravidian languages—namely Tamil in the South, Telegu in the north and the Malayalam in the West Coast. Malayalam is the language of the Indian States of Travancore, Cochin and Malabar districts. Hindi or Hindustani represented by Urdu and Hindi is the third great language of the world. Bombay Presidency has three main groups—Gujarati, Marhati, Karnataki. Bihar has into its fold Chotanagpur languages. The language of 'Assam proper,' as the Assam Valley and the hill districts of Assam have together been called, is Assamese, the hill and plain tribes often having dialects of their own. The Surma Valley is predominating Bengali. The Congress programme is to make fresh division of India on linguistic basis. The Congress provinces are already divided on this basis as far as possible.

The division of India into provinces is unfortunately not based upon linguistic, ethnological or cultural basis. It consists of artificial units with conglomeration of diverse peoples. According to Simon Commission's Report, the provinces "have grown up haphazard as a result of conquest, supersession of former rulers or administrative conquests."

The four great linguistic families of India are (1) *Austriac* (2) *Dravidian*, (3) *Indo-Aryan*, (4) *Sino-Tibetan*. Austriac language is represented in the hills and jungles of central and north-eastern India and is spoken by about 1.3 per cent. of the total population of India. The following are the Austriac languages (a) *Kol* or *Munda* group which includes *Santali*, *Mundari*, *Ho*, etc., (b) *Khasi* in *Assam*, and (c) *Nicobarese*.

The *Dravidian* group includes twelve distinct languages—*Tamil*, *Telugu*, *Kanarese*, *Malayalam*, *Tulu*, *Kodagu*, *Toda*, *Kota*, *Gond*, *Khond*, *Oraon* and *Rajmahal*. These languages are spoken in the following regions or districts of India; South-eastern, north-eastern, north-western, and south-western, the Malabar coast, Coorg (adjoining the Malabar coast), Nilgiri

Hills, Central India, N. W. Orissa, the Rajmahal hills of Bengal. Tamil is spoken also in the northern part of Ceylon, also *Brahui* in Beluchistan.

The Indo-Aryan languages are grouped into following classes—(1) *North-western group* represented by western *Punjabi* and *Sindhi*, (2) *Southern group* represented by Marathi and Konkani, (3) *Eastern group* represented by Oriya, Bengali, Assamese and Behari, (4) *East Central group* consisting of Eastern Hindi, (5) *Central group* consisting of Western Hindi (*Hindi* and *Urdu*), Eastern Punjabi, Rajasthani, Gujarati, (6) *Northern or Pahari group* consisting of Nepali, Garwali, Kumaoni and Western Pahari. Another two groups of languages known as *Dardic* and *Iranian* fall under Indo-Aryan group. Dardic is represented by Kashmiri and other small languages between India and Afghanistan. Iranian branch is represented by *Pashtu* in N. W. F. Province and *Balochi*.

Sino-Tibetan or *Tibeto-Burman* languages belong to Mongolian race. They are spoken in the inaccessible hills and mountains of Assam and Nepal and account for only about 0.85 per cent. of Indian population. Following are some of the language, *Manipuri*, *Lushai* and *Garo*.

Important Languages of India

Gujrati—is spoken in Gujrat, the northern maritime province of Bombay presidency and also in Baroda and Indian States adjoining.

Rajasthani—is spoken in Rajputana and adjoining parts of Central India. Rajasthani has numerous dialects.

Pahari—a general name applied to Indo-Aryan languages spoken in the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Nepal in the east to Chamba of the Punjab in the West.

Punjabi—the language of the Central Punjab. The vocabulary of Punjabi is very similar to that of Western Hindi.

Sindhi—belongs to the north-western group of the outer band of Indo-European languages. Sindhi is directly derived from Prakrit.

Marhati—Indo-Aryan language spoken in Western and Central India. It covers parts of two provinces of British India—Bombay and Central Provinces including Berar; also spoken in Portuguese India and some parts of Nizam's Dominions.

Konkani—A language that some two million people on India's West Coast speak; has more scripts than one. It is no more than a Marhati dialect.

Bengali—belongs to the group of Indo-Aryan languages. It is an immediate descendant of Magadhi Prakrit which spreading in south-east developed into Bengali.

Bihari—one of the eastern group of modern Indo-Aryan languages. It extends over the province of Agra and to the south it covers nearly the whole of the Province of Chota Nagpur. It is also the language of the inhabitants of the neighbouring Terai districts of Nepal. The Bihari has three main dialects—*Maithili*, *Tirhutia* and *Magadhi*.

Hindusthani—the term covers both Urdu and Hindi, because both the languages are in points of grammar and syntax practically identical and

there is a considerable fund of vocabulary common to both. Three factors however contribute to separatism. Firstly, Hindi is generally written in Devnagri script and Urdu in Persian Arabic script. Secondly, owing to various historical and sociological reasons Hindi has to be associated with Hindus and Urdu with the Muslims. Thirdly, Urdu writers tend to draw upon Arabic and Persian for expanding their vocabulary and Hindi writers upon Sanskrit.

Indian Languages—(1931)

Bengali	53,468,469	Kashmere	1,438,021
Assamese	1,999,057	Kherwari	4,031,970
Marathi	20,890,658	Punjabi	15,839,254
Tamil	20,412,652	Gujrati	10,849,984
Telegu	26,373,727	Pastu	1,634,490
*Western Hindi	71,547,671	*Behari	27,929,559
*Eastern Hindi	7,867,103	Kanarese	11,206,380
Malayalam	9,137,615	Oriya	11,194,265
Western Punjabi	8,566,501	Rajasthani	13,897,896
Sindhi	4,006,147	English	319,349

* *Hindustani* is the term under which both Urdu and Hindi are amalgamated for census purposes. They are regarded as one language though their script is different.

World Languages

Abyssinian, embracing Ethiopic, Galla, Geez, Amharic and Tigre	7,600,000	Hindi and other languages	216,000,000
Afghan	12,000,000	Hungarian	8,001,112
African dial	93,923,000	Bulgarian	6,078,000
Albanian	1,004,000	Chinese	488,573,000
Arabic	29,000,000	Danish	3,707,000
Bengali	53,000,000	Dutch	16,548,500
Czech	7,500,000	English	247,833,000
Persian	15,000,000	Lithuanian	2,393,000
Polish	32,000,000	Norwegian	2,814,200
Portuguese	48,800,000	Italian	43,700,000
Rumanian	19,400,000	Japanese	97,700,000
Russian dial	166,000,000	Javanese	42,000,000
Estonian	1,127,000	Lettish	1,905,000
Finnish	3,022,000	Serbian	11,000,000
Flemish	3,500,000	Siamese	14,500,000
French	68,895,000	Slovenian	5,185,000
German	78,947,000	Spanish	102,700,000
Greek	6,936,000	Swedish	6,266,000
		Tibeto-Burmese	17,000,000
		Turkish	16,160,000

Actual number of languages so far computed is 2,795. English language is spoken by more than 247,833,000 people.

BROADCASTING IN INDIA

The first development of Broadcasting in India began with a Radio Club at Madras in 1924, but regular service was inaugurated by the Indian Broadcasting Company when the first station was opened in Bombay on July 23, 1927 and Calcutta station was opened on August 26, 1927. Before these dates a number of low power stations in various parts of India were working. But Indian Broadcasting Company did not prosper at all. Government of India refused any monetary help to this Company when approached. So from March, 1930, the Company went into liquidation.

But there was an universal demand that broadcasting should continue in India without any interruption. As a result of various representations, Government decided to take over the broadcasting as an experimental measure. With effect from 1st April, 1930, it was placed under the direct control of the Government of India in the department of Industries and Labour under the designation of Indian State Broadcasting Service.

But the position of Broadcasting in India did not improve. The Government also decided to close down the service as it was being run at a considerable loss. The decision to close down was announced on the 9th October, 1931. This announcement caused considerable agitation everywhere. It became however clear that new sources of revenue had to be found out if Broadcasting was to continue in India. It was decided that customs receipts should be increased and it was also decided to rescind the order to close down the service. The duty on wireless receiving apparatus was fixed at 50 per cent. with effect from 1st April, 1932 by the Indian Tariff Amendment Act, 1932. On the 5th May, 1932, it was definitely decided to continue the Indian State Broadcasting Service under State management.

Since then there has been steady progress. With only 1,000 licensed listeners in 1937, it has risen to 180,660 in 1944. In 1939 A. I. R. had 13 transmitters, it has now (1945) 21 transmitters and 9 stations. Each station is under a Station Director. A. I. R. has now at its command a most powerful battery of transmitters capable of covering at least four continents direct.

The chief sources of revenue are customs duty on wireless apparatus, license fees and subscription and advertisement revenues from radio journals.

New Service—The Central News organization is situated at Delhi and provides (1) news bulletins for home programmes (in English and Indian languages) and (2) external programmes. All internal news bulletins are broadcast from the transmitters in Delhi and there are 27 internal news bulletins every day. Foreign language service began in December 1939 and it now broadcasts in 15 foreign languages.

Five Radio Journals, i.e., *Indian Listener* (English), *Awaz* (Urdu), *Sarang* (Hindi), *Betar Jagat* (Bengali), *Vanoli* (Tamil) are published by the A. I. R.

1. Number of Broadcast Receiver Licenses

		No. of Receiver Licenses			No. of Receiver Licenses
1927	..	3,598	1941	..	1,25,347
1930	..	7,719	1942	..	1,55,733
1933	..	10,872	1943	..	1,67,123
1936	..	37,797	1944	..	1,80,660
1939	..	72,282	1945	..	1,99,589
1940	..	97,537			

2. Total Income and Expenditure of A. I. R.

		Income	Rs.			Expenditure	Rs.
1940-41	..	31,53,730		1940-41	..	33,48,296	
1941-42	..	38,82,925		1941-42	..	35,59,776	
				1943-44	..	47,77,000	

3. Import of Wireless Sets

		Lakhs	Rs.			Lakhs	Rs.
1938-39	41.1	1941-42	52.5
1939-40	49.8	1942-43	19.9
1940-41	44.3				

Important Dates of Broadcasting in India

- 1924—First Radio Club in India in Madras on May 16, 1924.
 1927—Bombay Station of the Indian Broadcasting Co. opened on July 23, and Calcutta Station opened on August, 1927.
 1930—Indian Broadcasting Co. went into liquidation on March, 1930 and Broadcasting was placed under the direct control of the Government of India and its name was changed to "Indian State Broadcasting Service".
 1939—Designation of the Indian Broadcasting Service changed to "All-India Radio".
 1939—In December, first foreign language service opened.
 1943—Broadcasting House opened at Delhi.

METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT

The work of the Indian Meteorological Department, which was instituted in 1875, may be summarized as follows :—

The daily weather reports collected by telegraph and through the radio from the department's network of observatories throughout the country, the weather charts and the warnings of storm, flood or frost to the public, to aviators, shipping and agriculture and to railways and irrigation and administrative authorities.

In India large number of observers co-operate daily to take simultaneous observations at separate places, and hand in their reports to telegraphists, who transmit them to forecast centres, where, for rapid assimila-

tion, clerks decode them and chart them on maps. Meteorological experts then draw therefrom the conclusions on which their forecasts are based.

Reports for shipping and to ports are issued from the meteorological offices at Calcutta and Poona.

There is a special arrangement for warning river ports, river stations and police stations. When storms threaten, ships at sea can receive bulletins at least twice a day; message containing synoptic data are also issued as regional messages from Calcutta and Karachi, as an All-India message from Bombay.

Engineers in charge of railroads, telegraph lines and irrigation works who are on the warning lists receive warnings of heavy rainfall or high wind by special telegrams. Frost warning and heavy rainfall warnings are sent by telegram to collectors or chief agricultural officers at the headquarters of many districts.

The department has to organize itself not only for forecasting, but also to serve as the "public memory" of the weather and climate of India. These duties involve the proper statistical arrangement of weather data and their periodic publication in the form of daily, weekly, monthly, seasonal and yearly reports, as well as occasional papers dealing with long term averages.

Of all the major practical applications of meteorology its service to aviation is the most recent and has developed into a specialized and particularly designed organization. Aviators want information on winds at different levels, visibility, fogs, dust-storms, thunderstorms, height of clouds, etc., along with forecasts of changes in the elements.

Forecast centres are established at each main aerodrome and forecasts prepared at such centres are transmitted to other aerodromes for the benefit of pilots.

The opening of a chain of wireless stations and the fuller development of grouped organization along the main trans-India route has enabled the Meteorological Department to place the meteorological arrangements on a "routine" basis. Under the routine system, the trans-India route is divided into sections with terminal points at Karachi, Jodhpur, Allahabad and Calcutta.

There are also arrangements for the supply of special reports of current weather at any time to aircraft in flight, on request, as well as for voluntary reports regarding dangerous weather phenomena and their improvement.

In order to fulfil the various duties, the department is organized into a central office, sub-offices, pilot balloon observatories and weather observatories of different classes distributed over a region stretching from the Persian Gulf on the west to Burma on the east.

The Poona Meteorological Office is the G. H. Q. of Meteorology in India and administers main observatories and surface observatories.

An Agricultural Meteorology Branch was organised under the auspices

of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research in 1932 to study the relation of weather to agricultural operations.

The Upper Air Office at Agra is in charge of all pilot balloons observatories in India and the Persian Gulf and therefore in immediate executive charge of much of the meteorological service for aviation. The Bombay and Alibag observatories specialize in the study of geophysics, particularly terrestrial magnetism and seismology, while the observatory at Kodaikanal specializes in the study of solar physics.

The Alipore Office is responsible for the publication of a daily weather report for North-East India, for storm warning in the Bay of Bengal. It prepares weather charts daily and issues forecasts to airmen flying in North-East India, east of Allahabad. It is in charge of the auxiliary centre at Dum Dum and second, third, fourth and fifth class observatories in North-East India, and checks, and computes observations and data for stations in the area. It issues daily through the shortwave aeronautical wireless transmitting station at Calcutta, synoptic data of selected stations in the area. It maintains a first class observatory, and also a seismological observatory.

At the outbreak of war Indian meteorological organisation was not upto the mark of aeronautical meteorology. But recently a few large forecast centres and several smaller ones as well as auxiliary briefing centres have been established. A number of new pilot balloons stations for observing upper winds have been opened. Improvements have also been made in the technique of weather charting, presentation of forecasts and establishment of closer contact between meteorological officer and the pilot.

Head-quarters Office—Poona.

Upper Air Office—Agra.

Meteorological Office—Calcutta.

Meteorological Office—Karachi.

Colaba and Alibag Observatories—Bombay.

Meteorological Offices—Peshawar & Quetta.

Average Rainfall in India

	<i>Inches</i>		<i>Inches</i>
Shillong	84.64	Cuttack	59.97
Darjeeling	126.42	Lahore	19.21
Simla	61.04	Jacobabad	3.60
Srinagar	25.87	Hyderabad (Sind)	7.12
Ootacamund	55.56	Jubbulpore	55.11
Karachi	7.70	Nagpur	49.24
Madras	49.92	Poona	27.11
Bombay	71.21	Hyderabad (Deccan)	31.66
Calcutta	62.98	Bangalore	35.37
Allahabad	41.82	Patna	46.69
Lucknow	40.02	Benares	40.55
Delhi	26.24	Agra	26.90
Cawnpore	35.91	Ahmedabad	28.83
Dehra Dun	85.04	Peshawar	13.56

Normal Rainfall in Provinces

Madras—

Malabar	100.3
Madras S. E.	35.7
Madras Coast, North	37.9

Bombay—

Gujarat	32.5
Konkan	107.4
Bombay, Deccan	30.4

Sind	6.3
Bengal	74.7

United Provinces—

U. P. East	39.3
U. P. West	37.1

N. W. F. Province	15.9
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Baluchistan	8.1
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Andamans & Nicobars	116.2
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Hyderabad—

North	34.4
South	29.7
Mysore	36.2

Punjab—

P. East and North	23.4
P. South-West	10.1

Bihar—

Chotanagpur	52.6
Bihar	48.4
Orissa	57.6

Central Provinces & Berar—

C. P. West	46.6
C. P. East	53.8
Berar	32.5
Assam	100.3

Kashmir	41.4
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Central India—

West	34.6
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Rajputana—

East	42.3
West	12.8
East	26.0

Annual Maximum & Minimum Temperatures

	Maxi- mum	Mini- mum		Maxi- mum	Mini- mum
Shillong	69.9	53.5	Cuttack	90.9	72.2
Darjeeling	58.6	47.9	Dehra Dun	81.5	60.3
Simla	62.4	49.4	Lucknow	89.7	66.0
Srinagar	67.7	43.7	Agra	90.4	63.0
Abu	75.8	62.0	Meerut	87.8	63.7
Ootacamund	66.0	49.1	Delhi	88.8	64.5
Kodaikanal	63.6	50.8	Lahore	89.2	61.0
Murree	61.7	46.4	Jacobabad	95.5	66.1
Karachi	84.1	71.6	Hyderabad (Sind)	93.3	68.7
Bombay	86.8	73.8	Ahmedabad	94.6	70.6
Madras	92.2	74.9	Jubbulpur	88.2	63.6
Calcutta	88.5	70.2	Nagpur	92.1	70.1
Patna	87.6	68.9	Poona	89.4	64.7
Benares	89.5	56.6	Hyderabad (Dn.)	90.3	64.4
Allahabad	90.1	66.4	Bangalore	83.7	63.8
Cawnpore	89.0	66.0	Peshawar	85.0	60.5

Some Meteorological data

The highest maximum temperature recorded in India was 127°F at Jacobabad on June 12, 1919.

Kanjarapalli, Travancore has on the average 169 rainy days in a year against 162 days at Cherapunji which records the maximum annual rainfall. On July 23, 1930, Karachi recorded 7·86" of rain which is in excess of its annual average rainfall of 7·62".

INDIAN CONSTITUTION

Main Provisions

- (1) Development of provincial autonomy in the provinces and liberating them from Central control except for certain specific purposes.
- (2) Establishment of 'responsible' Government subject to many 'safeguards' in all the provinces.
- (3) It established the Federation of India, comprising both Provinces and States with federal Central Government and legislature for Central subjects.
- (4) Dyarchy, abolished in the Provinces but was reproduced in the Centre. Subjects of foreign affairs and defence were 'reserved' to the control of the Governor-General; other Central subjects were 'transferred' to ministers, subject to similar 'safeguards' as in the Provinces.
- (5) It retained separate electorates, both Provincial and Central, distributing the seats on the lines of the "Communal" Award.
- (6) Part of the Act which established Federation was not to operate at present. The rest of the Act came into force partly on July 3, 1936 and completely on April 1, 1977.

Indian Federation

The new Constitution of India passed in 1935 introduces federal type of government. It establishes the Federation of India. The Federation is to be composed of—

- (1) Governor's Provinces and Chief Commissioner's Provinces.
- (2) Indian States which have agreed to join the Federation by signing instrument of accession on certain terms and conditions.

Executive in Great Britain

The Crown resumes all rights, authority and jurisdiction in and over the territories of British India and the Indian States. The constitution of India owes its origin to British Parliament and all subsequent acts are to come from the same source.

All instruments of instruction to Governors and Governor-Generals shall come from the British Parliament. All Orders in Council should be laid before the British Parliament. All Ordinances issued by the Governor

Provincial Executive—The executive authority of a province shall be exercised on behalf of His Majesty by the Governor. He is to exercise functions with the aid and advice of a *Council of Ministers*. The Governor has the special responsibilities in the following matters—(1) Safeguarding the legitimate interests of minorities, (2) safe-guarding the legitimate interests of members of the public services, (3) to prevent any form of commercial discrimination, (4) securing of the peace and good government of partially-excluded areas and (5) protection of the rights of any Indian States and the rights and dignity of the Rulers thereof.

Council of Ministers will be chosen in his discretion by the Governor of the Province and will hold office at his pleasure. The Governor will choose his Ministers in consultation with the person whom he believes likely to command the largest following in the lower house. The Ministers are to exercise real executive power. The safeguards are provided by conferring certain administrative, legislative and financial powers upon the Governor.

Provincial Legislature

In every Province there shall be Provincial Legislatures which shall consist of His Majesty represented by the Governor and (a) in the provinces of Bengal, Bihar, Assam, the U.P., Madras, and Bombay—*two Chambers* (b) in other Provinces, *one Chamber*.

In provinces when there are to be two Chambers, the upper and lower chambers are to be known respectively as the *Legislative Council* and *Legislative Assembly*. In the unicameral provinces, the Chamber is to be known as the *Legislative Assembly*. The official 'bloc' in the Legislature is abolished and the legislatures shall be composed entirely of elected members excepting a few who are to be nominated by the Governor in the upper chamber.

The distribution of seats are based on the Communal Award issued by His Majesty's Government on 4th August, 1932 as modified by the Poona Pact.

Legislative Assembly are to continue for five years. Legislative Councils are to be permanent bodies not subject to dissolution but one-third of their members are to retire every three years.

Secretary of State

The Council of India as existing immediately before the commencement of this Act was abolished from April 1, 1937. *Advisers* are now appointed to advise Secretary of State for India. The Secretary of State is at liberty to consult them individually or collectively. He may act or refuse to act according to their advice.

Miscellaneous

Federal Court—The Act establishes a Federal Court. The Federal Court shall consist of a Chief Justice of India and such of other Judge as His Majesty may deem necessary. It will have (a) Original Jurisdiction, (b) An Appellate jurisdiction and (c) Advisory jurisdiction. The Act also provides an appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council from a decision of the Federal Court.

Defence—The responsibility for defence in the spheres of both policy and expenditure will rest with the Governor-General alone, subject to the general control of the Secretary of State. Under the new constitution Defence Department will be divorced not only from contact with the Legislature but also from contact with other departments of Government. The Act provides that there shall be a Commander-in-Chief in India appointed by the Crown. His Majesty shall have control over the defence appointments.

Civil Services—A member of the Civil Service holds office during His Majesty's pleasure. No such person shall be dismissed by any authority subordinate to the authority by which he was appointed. Secretary of State is to continue to make appointments to Indian Civil Service, Indian Medical Service, etc.

Public Service Commissions—Federal and Provincial Public Service Commissions are established to conduct examinations, etc., for recruitment of services.

Economic Provisions—The Act invalidates any act that makes commercial discrimination against British subjects domiciled in United Kingdom or Burma or companies incorporated there.

Railways—Federal Railway Authority is to be established consisting of seven persons to be appointed by the Governor-General.

High Commissioner for India—The office of the High Commissioner of India is continued. High Commissioner does the 'agency' work. He purchases stores for Government of India. He advises and looks after Indian students in England. He protects India's commercial interests in Great Britain.

or Governor-General for second term shall forthwith be communicated to the Secretary of State and he shall lay them before each Houses of Parliament.

Secretary of State for India is the Crown's responsible agent for the exercise of all authorities vested in the Crown in relation to the affairs of India. Governor-General and Governors are constitutionally responsible to him.

The Act provides a body of persons, not being less than three or more than six in number to advise him in any matter relating to India on which he may seek advice. This establishes a *Council of Advisers*.

There shall also be a *High Commissioner of India* in the United Kingdom appointed by the Governor-General who shall perform on behalf of the Federation various functions and in particular he shall make contracts as the Governor-General may from time to time direct.

Federal Executive

The Governor-General shall be the executive head of the Federation. He will exercise the power of the Crown in relation to the States and in other matters outside the scope of Federal constitution.

Governor-General functions in two fold manners—(1) *Reserved* side which consists of Governor-General and his *three Counsellors* and the (2) *Transferred* side which consists of Governor-General and his ten *Ministers*.

Reserved Side will consist of Defence, Ecclesiastical affairs, Foreign relations, and Tribal areas which shall be exercised by Governor-General in his discretion. He will be assisted by *Counsellors* not exceeding three in number who will be responsible to the Governor-General alone.

Transferred Side are to be administered by the Governor-General with the aid and advice of *Council of Ministers* who are not to exceed ten in number. These ministers will be appointed by the Governor-General from among the members of the Federal Legislature who collectively command the confidence of the Legislature.

Ministers are to be chosen by the Governor-General and shall hold office during his pleasure.

Governor-General's Special Responsibilities

(1) Prevention of any grave menace of the peace or tranquility of India. (2) Safeguarding of the financial stability and credit of the Government. (3) Safeguarding the legitimate interests of the minorities. (4) Safeguarding of legitimate interests of the members of public services. (5) Prevention of commercial discrimination. (6) To prevent discriminatory or penal treatment of goods of British or Burmese origin. (7) Protection of the rights of any Indian State.

Governor-General's Special Powers

These powers fall under three heads:—

(1) *Legislative powers*. (2) *Financial powers*. (3) *Executive powers*.

Legislative Powers—During the recess of the Federal Legislature the Governor-General may promulgate an *Ordinance* if circumstances arise for immediate action. He can also promulgate Ordinances *at any time* for the immediate and due discharge of his functions. He may also by message to both chambers of Legislature send draft of a bill which he likes to enact for proper discharge of his functions. After expiration of one month he may enact the bill proposed by him with amendments as he deems necessary. This is known as *Governor-General's Act*.

Financial powers—Governor-General can restore in discharge of his special responsibilities any demand which has been reduced or refused by the Legislature. No tax can be introduced in the Legislature without his permission. He will administer the non-votable heads of expenditure.

Executive powers—(1) In case of the failure of the constitutional machinery of the country when the Government of the Federation cannot be carried on, the Governor-General by proclamation may assume to himself all or any of the powers vested in the Federal authority. A proclamation is to remain in force for six months.

(2) He has exclusive power in the administration of reserved subjects.

(3) He has sole discretionary powers in the exercise of Royal prerogative, such as appointments, etc.

(4) He has special responsibilities in matters relating to peace, safeguarding of financial stability, protection of minorities, prohibition of trade or racial discrimination, etc.

Federal Legislature

Federal Legislature shall consist of (1) His Majesty represented by the Governor-General and (2) two Chambers known as *Council of State* and *Federal Assembly*.

Council of State shall have a total membership of 260 of whom 150 shall be representatives of British India and not more than 104 shall represent Indian States and six will be nominated by the Governor-General. Representatives of British India are to be elected on the communal basis. The Council of State is a permanent body not subject to dissolution, but as near as may be, one-third of its members are to retire three years.

The *Assembly* is to consist 375 members of whom 250 are to represent British India and not more than 125 are to represent the Indian States. Federal Assembly is to continue for five years. The seats allotted to British Indian Provinces shall be filled up by a system of *indirect election* by members of the Provincial Assemblies. The seats allotted to the States shall be filled by nomination of the rulers concerned.

Provincial Government

There are eleven *Governors' Provinces*, namely—Madras, Bombay, Sind, Punjab, Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Assam, United Provinces, Central Provinces and Berar, North-Western Frontier Province.

PROVINCIAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Province	Total of Seats	General Seats	Mahomedan Seats	European Seats	Indian Christian Seats	Seats to be filled by Legislative Assembly.	Seats to be filled by Governor
Madras	Not less than 54 Not more than 56	35	7	1	3	...	{ Not less than 8 Not more than 10
Bombay	Not less than 29 Not more than 30	20	5	1	{ Not less than 3 Not more than 4
Bengal	Not less than 63 Not more than 65	10	17.	3	...	27	{ Not less than 6 Not more than 8
United Provinces	Not less than 58 Not more than 60	34	17	1	{ Not less than 6 Not more than 8
Bihar	Not less than 29 Not more than 30	9	4	1	...	12	{ Not less than 3 Not more than 4
Assam	Not less than 21 Not more than 22	10	6	2	{ Not less than 3 Not more than 4

PROVINCIAL LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLIES

1	2	3			5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14					Indian Christian
		General seats												Seats for representatives for backward areas and tribes	Sikh Seats	Mahomedan Seats	Anglo-Indian Seats	European Seats	
Name of Province	Total Seats	Total General Seats			Seats for representatives of Scheduled Castes	Sikh Seats	Mahomedan Seats	Anglo-Indian Seats	European Seats	Indian Christian Seats	Seats for representatives of Commerce, Industry, Mining & Planting interests	Landholders' Seats	University Seats	Seats for representatives of labour					Indian Christian
		General	Reserved	of Scheduled Castes										General	Sikh	Mahomedan	Anglo-Indian	European	
Madras	215	146	30	1	—	28	2	3	8	6	6	6	1	6	6	1	—	—	1
Bombay	175	114	15	1	—	29	2	3	3	7	2	2	1	7	5	1	—	—	—
Bengal	250	78	30	—	—	117	3	11	2	19	5	5	2	8	2	2	1	—	—
United Provinces	228	140	20	—	—	64	1	2	2	3	3	6	1	3	4	2	—	—	—
Punjab	175	42	8	—	—	84	1	1	2	1	4	5	1	3	1	2	—	—	—
Bihar	152	86	15	7	—	39	1	1	1	1	4	4	1	3	3	1	—	—	—
Central Provinces and Berar	112	84	20	1	—	14	1	1	—	2	2	3	1	3	3	—	—	—	—
Assam	108	47	7	9	—	34	—	—	1	—	11	—	—	2	4	1	—	—	—
N.-W. F. P.	50	9	—	—	—	36	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Orissa	60	44	6	5	—	4	—	—	—	1	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sind	60	18	—	—	—	33	—	—	2	—	2	2	—	1	1	—	—	—	—

COUNCIL OF STATE

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Province or Community	Total Seats	General Seats	Seats for Scheduled Castes	Sikh Seats	Mahomedan Seats	Women's Seats
Madras	20	14	1	..	4	1
Bombay	16	10	1	..	4	1
Bengal	20	8	1	..	10	1
United Provinces	20	11	1	..	7	1
Punjab	16	3	..	4	8	1
Bihar	16	10	1	..	4	1
Central Provinces and Berar ..	8	6	1	..	1	..
Assam	5	3	2	..
N.-W. Frontier Province ..	5	1	4	..
Orissa	5	4	1	..
Sind	5	2	3	..
British Baluchistan	1	1	..
Delhi	1	1
Coorg	1	1
Ajmer-Merwara	1	1
Anglo-Indians	1
Europeans	7
Indian Christians	2
Totals ..	150	75	6	4	49	6

FEDERAL ASSEMBLY
Representatives of British India

Province	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	Total Seats	Total general Seats	General Seats reserved for Scheduled Castes	Sikh Seats	Mahomedan Seats	Anglo-Indian Seats	European Seats	Indian Christian Seats	Seats for representation of commerce and industry	Landholders' Seats	Seats for representation of labour	Women's Seats
Madras	37	19	4	..	8	1	1	2	2	1	1	2
Bombay	30	13	2	..	6	1	1	1	3	1	2	2
Bengal	37	10	3	..	17	1	1	1	3	1	2	1
United Provinces	37	19	3	..	12	1	1	1	..	1	1	1
Punjab	30	9	1	6	14	..	1	1	..	1	..	1
Bihar	30	16	2	..	9	..	1	1	..	1	1	1
Central Provinces and Berar	15	9	2	..	3	..	1	1	1	1
Assam	10	4	1	..	3	1	..	1	1	..
N.-W. Frontier Province	5	1	4
Orissa	5	4	1	..	1
Sind	5	1	3	..	1
British Baluchistan	1	1
Delhi	2	1	1
Ajmer-Merwara	1	1
Coorg	1	1
Non-Provincial Seats	4	3	..	1	..
Totals	250	105	19	6	82	4	8	8	11	7	10	9

POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL DOCUMENTS

History of the Communal Representation

In 1906 All-India Moslem Deputation led by the H. H. the Aga Khan to Lord Minto, the Viceroy of India, pressed for separate Moslem representation for the first time. Lord Minto replied—"The pith of your address as I understand it, is a claim that under any system of representation, whether it affects a municipality, or a district board, or a Legislative Council, in which it is proposed to introduce or increase an electoral organisation, the Muslim community should be represented as a community. You may point out that in many cases electoral bodies as now constituted cannot be expected to return a Muslim candidate and that if by chance they did so, it could only be at the sacrifice of such a candidate's views to those of a majority opposed to his community whom he would in no way represent; and you justly claim that your position should be estimated not only on your numerical strength, but in respect to the political importance of your community and the service it has rendered to the Empire."

Lord Morley's Gesture.—In June 1909, in reply to a Moslem deputation for separate representation, Lord Morley said—"The aim of the Government and yours is identical—that there shall be 'adequate and genuine Mahomedan representation'. Now where is the difference between us? Mixed electoral colleges. Well, as I have told you, the language of the despatch does not insist upon a mixed electoral college. It would be no departure in substance from the purpose of our suggestion that there should be a separate Mahomedan electorate—an electorate exclusively Mahomedan."

Mr. Asquith's Support.—On the second reading of the Indian Council's Bill of 1909, Mr. Asquith said in the House of Commons—"Undoubtedly there will be a separate register for Muslims. To us here at first sight it looks an objectionable thing because it discriminates between people and segregates them into classes on the basis of religious creeds. I do not think that is a very formidable objection. The distinction between Muslim and Hindus is not merely religious, but cuts deep down not only into tradition and historic past but into the habits and social customs of the people."

So under the Indian Council's Act of 1909 Governor-General issued resolution on November 15, 1909, by which Muslims were given separate representation.

Lucknow Pact.—This was the Congress-League Agreement of 1916 made at Lucknow. It was laid down that "adequate provision should be made for the representation of important minorities by election, and that the Muslims should be represented through special electorates on the Provincial Legislative Councils in the following proportions—

Punjab—50 p.c.; U. P.—30 p.c.; Bengal—40 p.c.; Bihar—25 p.c.; C. P.—15 p.c.; Madras—15 p.c.; and Bombay—33½ p.c. of the elected members.

Provided that no Muslim shall participate in any of the other elections to the Imperial or Provincial Legislative Councils save and except those by electorates representing special interests."

The pact was passed by the 31st I. N. Congress at Lucknow in 1916 and also adopted by the All-India Muslim League held there.

Another important clause in the pact was—

"No bill, nor any clause thereof, nor a resolution introduced by a non-official member affecting one or the other community, which question is to be determined by the members of that community in the Legislative Council concerned, shall be preceded with, if three-fourths of the members of that community in the particular Council, Imperial or Provincial, oppose the bill or any clause thereof or the resolution."

Montague-Chelmsford Report.—"Much as we regret the necessity, we are convinced that so far as the Mahomedans are at all events concerned, the present system must be maintained until conditions alter, even at the price of slower progress towards the realisation of a common citizenship. But we see no reason to set up communal representation for Mahomedans in any province where they form a majority of voters."

Bengal Pact.—The Bengal Pact of 1923 was passed at a meeting of Swarajists at Calcutta on 16th and 17th December, 1923, at the initiation of late Mr. C. R. Das.

Clause (a) of the Pact stated—"Representation in the Provincial Legislative Council be on the population basis with separate electorate; subject to such adjustments as may be necessary, by All-India Hindu-Muslim pact and by the Khilafat and the Congress."

The clause (b) stated—"Representation to local bodies to be in the proportion of 60 to 40 in every district—sixty to the community which is in a majority and forty to the minority. The question as to whether there should be separate or mixed electorates is postponed for the present to ascertain the views of both communities."

Mahomed Ali's Scheme.—"We should now have, in the interests of Indian Nationalism a mixed territorial electorate." The scheme is as follows:—

(1) That the seats in the legislature should be reserved for both the communities—Hindus and Mahomedans, (2) that no candidate should be declared elected unless he secured (a) at least 40 per cent. of the votes cast of his own community and (b) at least 5 per cent. of the votes cast of other communities wherever he is in a minority of ten or less per cent. and ten per cent., where he is in a larger minority or in a majority."

The Govt. of India Act of 1919.—The Lucknow Pact formed the basis of communal representation in the Act of 1919. This Act provided for separate electorates for separate communities and separate interests.

The Simon Commission.—In 1930 recommended that in the absence of a common formula for representation of communities in the Legislatures, the *status quo* would remain.

Communal Award.—In the Second Round Table Conference, the Minority Committee broke up without coming to an agreement regarding

communal representation. So the British Prime Minister, on 1st December, 1931, announced—"If you cannot present us with a settlement acceptable to all parties as the foundation upon which to build, in that event His Majesty's Government would be compelled to apply a provisional scheme, for they are determined that even this disability shall not be permitted to be a bar to progress." The Prime Minister's communal decision was made on 17th August, 1932. On 18th August, 1932, Mahatma Gandhi wrote to the Prime Minister objecting to the provision of separate electorate for the depressed classes. On 20th September, 1932, Gandhi's fast unto death began for achieving the object of modifying the Award in respect of representation of the Depressed Classes. As a result of the fast, Hindus of all classes drew up the Poona Pact modifying Scheduled Caste representation as settled in the British Government and the Poona Pact was accepted by the British Government.

Poona Pact.—This Pact was signed on 25th September, 1932. It has replaced separate electorates for the Scheduled Castes by joint electorates with reservation of seats. The procedure is that there will be primary elections under which the depressed class voters will elect a panel of four members for each reserved seat for election by general constituencies.

1. Seats in the Provincial Legislatures shall be reserved for Scheduled Castes as follows:—

Madras—30; Bombay—15; Punjab—8; B. & O.—18; C. P.—20; Assam—7; Bengal—30; U.P.—30. Total—148.

2. Election to these seats shall be by joint electorates subject to however certain procedure.

3. Representatives of depressed classes in the Central Legislature shall likewise be on the principle of joint electorates.

4. In the Central Legislature eighteen per cent. of the seats allotted to the general electorate for Br. India shall be reserved for the depressed classes.

British Government's Proposal Through Sir Stafford Cripps

"His Majesty's Government, having considered the anxieties expressed in Great Britain and in India as to the fulfilment of promises made in regard to the future of India, have decided to lay down, in precise and clear terms, the steps which they propose, shall be taken for the earliest possible realization of self-government in India.

"The object is the creation of a new Indian union which shall constitute a **Dominion associated with the United Kingdom and the other Dominions by a common allegiance to the Crown**, but equal to them in every respect, in no way subordinate in any aspect of its domestic and external affairs.

"His Majesty's Government, therefore, make the following declaration:—

"I. Immediately upon cessation of hostilities steps shall be taken to set up in India, in a manner described hereafter, an elected body charged with the task of framing a new Constitution for India.

"II. **Provision shall be made, as set out below, for the partition of Indian States in the Constitution-making body.**

"III. His Majesty's Government undertake to accept and implement forthwith the Constitution so framed subject only to:—

(a) The right of any province of British India that is not prepared to accept the new Constitution to retain its present constitutional position, provision being made for its subsequent accession, if it so decides. With such non-acceding provinces, should they so desire, His Majesty's Government will be prepared to agree upon a new Constitution giving them the same full status as the Indian Union and arrived at by a procedure analogous to that here laid down.

(b) The signing of a treaty which shall be negotiated between His Majesty's Government and the Constitution-making body. This treaty will cover all necessary matters arising out of the complete transfer of responsibility from British to Indian hands. It will make provision, in accordance with the undertakings given by His Majesty's Government for the protection of racial and religious minorities, but will not impose any restriction on the power of the Indian Union to decide in future its relationship to other member States of the British Commonwealth.

Whether or not an Indian State elects to adhere to the Constitution, it will be necessary to negotiate a revision of its treaty arrangements so far as this may be required in the new situation.

"IV. The Constitution-making body shall be composed as follows, unless the leaders of Indian opinion in the principal communities agree upon such other form before the end of hostilities:—

"Immediately upon the result being known of provincial elections which will be necessary at the end of hostilities, the entire membership of the Lower Houses of provincial legislatures shall, as a single electoral college, proceed to the election of the Constitution-making body by the system of proportional representation. This new body shall be in number about one-tenth of the number of the electoral college. Indian States shall be invited to appoint representatives in the same proportion to their total population as in the case of representatives of British India as a whole, and with the same powers as British Indian members.

"V. During the critical period which now faces India and until the new Constitution can be framed, His Majesty's Government must inevitably bear the responsibility for, and retain the control and direction of the defence of India as part of their world war effort, but the task of organizing to the full the military, moral and material resources of India must be responsibility of the Government of India with the co-operation of the peoples of India.

His Majesty's Government desire and invite, the immediate and effective participation of the leaders of the principal sections of the Indian people in the counsels of their country, of the commonwealth and of the United Nations. Thus they will be enabled to give their active and constructive help in the discharge of a task which is vital and essential for the future freedom of India."

Mahatma Gandhi's ten Fasts

(1) Three day fast which settled a mill strike in March, 1918 at Ahmedabad. He fasted in support of the strikers and after three days' fasting mill-owners conceded the strikers' demand. (2) A penitential fast in 1919 after severe riots breaking out in several places during first non-cooperation movement against Rowlatt Act. The movement was called off; but Rowlatt Act was never put into force and was ultimately repealed. (3) Five day fast as a penance for rioting in Bombay during Prince of Wales' visit, Nov, 1921. (4) 21 day penance for communal rioting in various places, September 1929. Fast began on 17th September and broken on 8th October. (5) 'Fast unto death'—unless award of separate electorate was dropped, Sept, 1932. Fast began on 20th Sept. and ended on 26th September 1932. This resulted what is known as 'Poona-Pact' which was accepted by the British Government. (6) 21 days fast for 'Self-purification' for himself and his followers for greater vigilance and watchfulness in connection with Harijan cause, 8th May to 29th May, 1933. (7) Arrested on the eve of C. D. movement, Mahatma Gandhi began his fast on 1st August 1933 for unlimited duration, claiming facilities for propaganda in connection with Harijan cause and was unconditionally released after a week's fasting. (8) Seven day penance for public assault on orthodox Hindus who had demonstrated against him in which an orthodox leader was seriously injured, July, 1934. (9) Fast unto death in connection with a dispute with Thakore Sahib of Rajkot in which Mahatma Gandhi claimed that the Prince had violated an agreement of constitutional reform with Vallabhbhai Patel. Dispute was submitted to the Chief Justice of India by the Viceroy who decided in Mahatma Gandhi's favour. Fast began on 26th February 1939 and broken on 7th March *i.e.*, 11th day. (10) Three weeks fast 'to capacity' from 9th Feb, 1943 to 2nd March for refusal of government to give him opportunity to repudiate serious charges brought by the Government against the Congress.

Congress Dates

(1885)—Establishment of the Congress in 1885 by A. O. Hume and first session in Bombay on 28th December, 1885 with 72 representatives and 30 friends; (1906)—Dadabhai Naoroji, in his presidential address at Calcutta proclaimed *Swaraj* or Self-Government as in the Colonies as the goal of the Congress; (1907)—Split in the ranks of the Congress at Surat when the annual session was wrecked; (1919)—Moderates separated from Congress finally; (1920)—Mahatma Gandhi joined Congress and it passed under his control; first civil disobedience movement started on March 19, 1920; (1921)—Four anna membership of the Congress was first introduced; (1923)—First entry of a strong Congress party in the Central Legislature (*Swaraj Party*) for wrecking the reforms; (1927)—At the annual session, Congress declared the goal of Indian people was complete national independence; (1928)—Congress agreed to accept Dominion Status if granted before the end of 1929; (1929)—In fulfilment of its previous resolution Congress at Lahore passed Complete Independence or

Purna Swaraj resolution; Congress institutes 26th Jan, 1930 an annual *Independence Day* to be observed for the first time on the 26th January; (1930)—Civil Disobedience movement started by the Congress for Government's failure to accede to Congress demand; (1931)—C. D. movement suspended on the conclusion of Gandhi-Irwin Pact when Congress agreed to join Second Round Table Conference with Mahatma Gandhi as sole representative; (1932)—Congress activities suppressed by the Government and organization declared unlawful; (1934)—Congress withdrew Civil Disobedience movement; (1935)—Congress celebrated Golden Jubilee in December; (1937)—Congress started parliamentary activities under Government of India Act of 1935 and swept the polls at general elections held all over India and Congress ministries established in seven out of 11 provinces; first village Congress at Faizpur; (1939)—Congress ministries tendered resignations as Congress could not support Britain in the imperialistic war; (1940)—Congress rejected Viceroy's August offer of the expansion of Viceroy's Executive Council and for drawing up of a new constitution after the end of war as it was wholly opposed not only to principle of democracy but also to the best interests of India; (1940)—Congress starts anti-war individual Civil Disobedience movement restricted to limited number of Congressmen; (1942)—Congress rejected Sir Stafford Cripps's offer of Dominion Status; All-India Congress Committee passed 'Quit India' resolution at Bombay on 8th August, 1942; and the Government launched full repressive measures against the Congress by the wholesale arrests of its leaders and the Congress organisation was banned throughout most of British India. (1944)—Mahatma Gandhi and members of Congress working committee released; (1945) Fresh plan for an interim Government proposed by British Government through Lord Wavell, was accepted by the Congress, but it broke down at Simla Conference due to insistence of the Muslim League of Congress-League Party.

Civil Disobedience movements

1918—Khairat peasants' Satyagraha in Bombay. The peasants refused to pay land tax where owing to various and other causes their condition was extremely bad. Bombay Government had to yield to peasants' demands led by Mahatma Gandhi and Patel, whereupon movement was called off.

1919 (1st March)—First nation-wide non-co-operation movement against the passing of the Rowlatt Act which resulted in riots in several places. For this, movement was suspended by Mahatma Gandhi who undertook a penitential fast.

1920 (Sept.)—A general non-cooperation movement which made common cause with the Muslims. Objects were (1) to right the Khilafat and Punjab wrongs (Amritsar Tragedy) and to win Swaraj. This also resulted in violence in several places and at Chauri Chaura where about 21 policemen were burnt. This tragedy led Mahatma Gandhi to suspend C. D. movement.

1930 (March)—C. D. Campaign against Salt laws. The Congress

Session at Lahore in 1929 adopted a resolution of complete independence to be the goal of India and authorised a campaign of C. D. movement including non-payment of taxes. From the beginning of the movement upto Jan. 1931, 60,000 people were arrested. Mahatma Gandhi was also arrested but was released on 27th June, 1931 and a settlement was reached with Lord Irwin known as *Gandhi-Irwin Pact* and concessions were made regarding Salt laws. The movement was called off, prisoners released and Congress agreed to join 2nd R. T. C. in London.

1932 (January)—Change of Labour Government in England brought about a complete political deadlock in India. Return of Gandhi from 2nd R. T. C. after its failure to reach to an agreed formula regarding political deadlock in India was signalised by repression by Government through various ordinances and the suppression of the Congress. Mahatma Gandhi started C. D. movement. He was arrested on 4th Jan. 1932. By April 1932, 32,458 people were convicted for civil disobedience. Congress suspended the movement on 7th April 1934.

1940-41—Started in October 1940, the basis being the demand for freedom to propagate anti-war opinions. It was restricted to selected individuals. The number of prisoners on 1st July, 1941 was 12,129. Government unconditionally released the prisoners and on 15th Jan. 1941, Congress dropped the campaign.

1942 (August)—'Quit India' resolution of All India Congress Congress Committee authorising to start a mass movement was passed on 7th August, but it was subject to Mahatma's interview with the Viceroy. But Gandhi and all Congress leaders were arrested before Congress launched the movement. This led to the widespread disorders throughout the country.

Nehru Report

All Parties Conference appointed a Committee in February, 1928, to draw up an agreed constitution for India and draft a report thereon. The report was published in August, 1928 and bore eight signatories including those of Pandit Motilal Nehru, the Leader of the Congress Party, Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, the leader of the Liberal Party. This report was known as *Nehru Report* and was regarded as an answer to Lord Birkenhead's challenge to political India to produce a constitution which might gain the assent of all interests in the country. It was based on the principle of dominion status.

Wavell Plan

Plan of Lord Wavell, the Viceroy of India for interim government in the Centre :—

(1) It sought to establish a purely interim Government at the centre within the framework of the present constitution.

(2) Veto power of the Viceroy would remain unaffected but it was assured that it would be sparingly used.

(3) Defence Department would remain unaffected under the Commander-in-Chief, but Home, Finance and Foreign Affairs would be transferred to Indian members.

(4) The Executive Council would not be responsible to the Legislature but would reflect popular opinion as the members would be chosen from main political parties.

(5) The Council would contain mainly equal number of caste Hindu and Muslim members.

Desai-Liaquat Pact

This pact was drawn up by Mr. Bulabhai Desai, Congress Leader of the Opposition in the Central Assembly and Nawabzada Liaquat Ali Khan, General Secretary of the All-India Muslim League for an interim government during the war—

The Congress and League agree that they will join forming an interim government in the Centre. The composition of such government will be on the following lines.

(A) Equal number of persons nominated by the Congress and the League in the Central Executive. Persons nominated need not be members of the Central Legislature.

(B) Representatives of minorities (in particular Scheduled Castes and the Sikhs).

(C) The Commander-in-Chief.

The Government will be formed and function within the frame work of the existing Government of India Act. It is, however, understood that if the Cabinet cannot get a particular measure passed by the Legislative Assembly they will not enforce the same by resort to any of the reserve powers of the Governor-General or the Viceroy. This will make them sufficiently independent of the Governor-General.

It is agreed between the Congress and the League that if such interim government is formed, their first step would be to release the Working Committee members of the Congress.

ESSENTIAL DATES OF INDIAN HISTORY

B.C.

3000 (about)—Pre-Aryan civilisation of Mahenjo-Daro.

1600—First Aryan Settlement of the Gangetic Plain.

1000-500—Formation of *Vedas*.

800-500—The Upanishads.

599-527—Mahavira, the founder of *Jainism*.

543—Death of Buddha.

500—Earliest *Puranas*.

326—Alexander's Invasion.

321—Chandra Gupta Maurya—First Emperor of India.

269—Asoka : Accession.

A.D.

120—Kaniksha, the Kushan King.

320-530—Gupta Dynasty.

330—Samudragupta.

375—Chandragupta (Vikramaditya): Kalidas.

606-648—Harsha.

712—Bin Kassim's invasion of Sind.

750—Rise of Pallava Kingdom.

760—Kailasha Temple.

820—Death of Sankaracharyya.

900—Rise of Chola Kingdom.

1005—First invasion of Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni.

1192—Battle of Thaneswar : Prithviraj and Ghori.

1206-1526—Sultanate of Delhi.

1294—Alauddin captures Deogiri.

1336—Foundation of Vijayanagar.

- 1398—Taimur's invasion.
 1409—Birth of Guru Nanak, founder of Sikh religion.
 1498—Vasco da Gama arrived at Calicut, 20th May.
 1526—Second battle of Panipat: Babar and Lodi.
 1556-1605—Akbar.
 1565—Fall of Hindu Kingdom of Vijaynagar.
 1600—Foundation of E. I. Co.
 1602—Dutch E. I. Co. founded.
 1604—French E. I. Co. founded.
 1628-58—Shah Jahan.
 1630—Birth of Sivaji.
 1645—June 30, Tajmahal at Agra completed by Shah Jehan.
 1661—English get Bombay as part of dowry of Catherine of Braganza.
 1690—English found Calcutta.
 1707—Death of Aurangzib.
 1739—Invasion of India by Nadir Shah.
 1757—Battle of Plassey establishes British rule in Bengal.
 1760—Battle of Wandiwash (end of French Power).
 1761—3rd Battle of Panipath (end of Marhatta Power).
 1774—Warren Hastings becomes first Governor-General.
 1780—First English newspaper *Hickey's Gazette* started in Calcutta, 29th January, 1780.
 1784—Pitts' Act establishes Board of Control.
 1793—Permanent Settlement of Bengal.
 1880—August 18, Fort William College, Calcutta, established.
 1827—Right to sit as jurors was extended to Indians.
 1828—Raja Rammohan Roy founds Brahmo Samaj.
 1829—Abolition of Sutte.
 1832—Macaulay's minute (beginning of English education).
 1839—June 27, Ranjit Singh of Lahore died.
 1854—Electric Telegraph introduced in India, 23rd March.
 1854—First Legislative Council met in India.
 1857-58—Sepoy Mutiny.
 1857—June 24, Calcutta University founded.
 1858—E. I. Co. dissolved; Govt. of India transferred to British Crown.
 1858—Queen's Proclamation.
 1862—July 12, High Court of Calcutta was inaugurated.
 1862—I. C. S. Act & Indian High Courts Act & Ind. Council's Act passed by Parliament.
 1885—Indian National Congress established on 28th December.
 1877—Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India.
 1887—Feb. 16, Jubilee of Queen Victoria in India.
 1904—Indian Universities Act.
 1905—Partition of Bengal (rise of militant nationalism).
 1909—Indian Councils Act passed enlarging legislative councils.
 1911—First aerial post in India was carried from Allahabad Exhibition to 6 miles off.
 First English King landed in Ind.
 1912—Transfer of seat of the Government of India from Calcutta to Delhi.
 1914-19—World War.
 1916—Home Rule League formed. Lucknow Pact.
 1917—Declaration of Secretary of State promising responsible government to India.
 1918—Montague-Chelmsford Report.
 1919—Rowlatt Act passed—Tragedy at Amritsar (13th April).
 First Indian to be made a peer, Lord Sinha.

- 1920—Hunter Commission's report; Nov. 16, Election to New Legislatures; Aug. 1, Inauguration of non-co-operation movement by Gandhi.
- 1921—Moplah Rebellion.—Prince of Wales' visit to India (No. 7, 1921).
- 1922—Chauri-Chaura outrage: Bardoli Resolutions: Mahatma Gandhi's arrest, trial and imprisonment for six years.
- 1923—Certification of Salt Tax.—Burma constituted a Governor's Province.
- 1924—Swarajist Party enters Legislatures.
- 1925—Death of Mr. C. R. Das
Khyber Pass Railway 27 miles in length, was opened.
- 1926—Currency Commission fixes the gold ratio of Rupee at 1s. 6d.
- 1927—A Statutory Commission set up under Sir John Simon.
- 1929—Lahore Congress passes Independence Resolution.
- 1929—April 7, First Imperial Airways plane carrying mails from England to India landed at Karachi.
- 1930—April 1, Civil Disobedience movement launched by Congress.—Round Table Conference (1st Session, Nov. 12).
- 1931—March 4, Gandhi-Irwin Pact signed.—Round Table Conference (Second Session). Gandhi, sole representative of the Congress.
- 1932—Suppression of the Congress.—Gandhi's fast from Sept. 20 to 26, which resulted in Poona Pact.
- 1934—Reserve Bank Act passed.—Royal Indian Navy inaugurated.
- 1935—Government of India Act passed.—Orissa and Sind constituted separate province.—May 20, Severe earthquake at Quetta.
- 1937—Provincial Autonomy inaugurated in all Provinces under the new Government of India Act (1st April).—Congress takes office in seven provinces.
- 1939—Declaration of Second World War (Sept. 3, 1939).—Congress protest against India being declared a belligerent without her consent and Congress ministries resign in all provinces.
- 1940—Congress Working Committee demands complete independence and establishment of provisional National Government.
- 1941—India rejects Br. Government's offer of 'Self-Government' sent through Sir Stafford Cripps.
- 1943—Congress 'Quit India' Resolution—wholesale arrests of Congress leaders.
- 1944—Release of Mahatma Gandhi.—Formation of Indian National Army under Subhas Chandra Bose at Singapore.
- 1945—I.N.A. Trials in India.

Do you Know—

The worst of India's three great problems are Ill-health, illiteracy and Poverty—Infant mortality for 1,000 births in India is 162, in U.S.A. it is 45, in England 58 and in Japan 106.

So low are India's health standards that expectation of life in India is only about 26 years in India compared with 67 in Australia, 63 in England and 47 in Japan.

India has about 47,500 doctors to serve the needs of 400 million. There is one doctor for every 6,800 peoples as against one doctor for every 1,000 in England.

WOMEN'S SPHERE

Political Progress—Though Montague-Chelmsford Reform did not confer the franchise on women, the rules framed under the Act gave provinces power to extend the vote to them. So Madras and Bombay were the first to give votes to women in 1921. By 1926 they were also made legible for seats in the Provincial Legislature. Dr. Muthulakshmi Reddi of Madras was the first woman member in any Provincial Legislature. The franchise of women was much widened by the Act of 1935 when six million women were enfranchised. 42 seats were reserved for them in Legislatures in addition to their power of contesting general seats.

The Congress movement greatly accelerated the women's movement in politics and in other spheres. The movement greatly helped to do away the *purdah*, untouchability, illiteracy and other social inequities among women. Large number of them went to prison during civil disobedience movement. Women Congress candidates were elected every where, and some of them took office as Vice-Presidents of the Legislatures and Ministers. Larger number of women also are attending universities and joining in various professions.

Some facts about Indian women—In India males are in excess of females. Out of a total 389 millions in 1941, females number 188 millions. The proportion of the sexes in 1941 is 93.5 females for every 100 males which is actually less than 1931 calculation. The number of females are relatively small in North-Western India. It is 84 in the N. W. F. P. and 84.7 in the Punjab. India has the lowest proportion of unmarried women in the world. In India 118 male children are born to every 100 female ones.

Women's Education—Women's education lags far behind the men's. Roughly 40 per cent. of the boys of primary age attend school today as against only 10 per cent. of the girls. The 1941 census figures revealed that only 9.3 million women have attained literacy, a proportion that compares very poorly with the 37 millions for men.

All-India Women's Conference—The most prominent of women's organisations that help to uplift women of India is the All-India Women's Conference which really began or suggested itself when an English Educational Official in Bengal asked for a statement of what the women of India wanted in education, so that he and others engaged in the administration of education might be guided in their work. The suggestion was taken up in right earnest by Mrs. Margaret E. Cousins, Secretary of the Women's India Association, Adyar, who addressed an appeal to women all over the country to form local committees and hold constituent conferences in different parts of India for the purpose of declaring their views on education. Her appeal met with wide enthusiastic response. The first All-India Women's Conference was organized at Poona in December, 1926, and since then it has been an annual feature.

Though the Conference at first began to concentrate its energy on educational reform, it widened its scope on social advancement, promotion of national unity. It has created agitation on (1) widening of women's franchise; (2) removal of untouchability; (3) communal unity; (4) promotion of child welfare; (5) protection of women and children employed in industry; (6) special measures dealing with immoral traffic; and (7) codification of laws for improvement of Hindu women's status, etc. Its outstanding work was the starting of Lady Irwin College of Home Science in New Delhi.

Communal unity is another kindred problem which has engaged its attention. The Women's Conference have done a great service to the nation in bringing women of all communities on a common platform irrespective of caste, colour or creed.

The other women's organisations are (1) Women's Indian Association started in 1917 at Madras by Dr. Annie Besant. It is the first women's organisation of India and did pioneer work in many spheres, (2) National Council of Women founded in 1925. It has now five Provincial Councils in Delhi, Bombay, Bihar, Central Provinces and Bengal. There are also numerous women's organisations throughout India for advancement of women's cause.

Kasturba Fund—On the death of Mrs. Kasturba Gandhi, wife of Mahatma Gandhi who died under detention, a memorial fund of one crore of rupees was collected under the guidance and inspiration of Mahatma Gandhi, the sum so collected is to be spent for improvement of condition of women in villages. In order to carry out the scheme, a large number of women are being trained in first aid, home nursing, child welfare, rural sanitation etc. These trained women known as *Gram Sevikas* after their completion of training are to spread throughout the whole length and breadth of the country.

Hindu Law Code—Rau Committee appointed by the Government of India has prepared a bill for the codification of entire Hindu Law. According to the proposed changes, daughters are allowed a share in property left by their fathers. Both wives and daughters are given absolute control of their inheritance. There are also other far-reaching proposed changes of women as regards succession, marriage, divorce, etc. If the proposals are passed, it will greatly improve the status of Hindu women.

PRESS & NEWSPAPERS

Beginning of Press & Press Laws—The beginning of press laws in India goes back to early eighteenth century. There was no statutory law at that period but the press was penalised by the stopping of circulation through the General Post Office. Another way of punishing the newspapers was forcibly deporting the editors to England.

After this, came the period of censorship of the press for the first time in 1795. But it was left to Lord Wellesley to make the Press Regula-

tion more systematic and drastic. On May 13, 1799, Regulations were issued for the control of newspapers published in Calcutta. These regulations were also applied to Bombay and Madras.

This censorship of Lord Wellesley continued for 17 years till the end of Lord Minto's resign. Lord Hastings superseded these Regulations of censorship and issued on August 19, 1818, the following resolution—"To abolish the censorship and to substitute in its place some general rules for the guidance of editors calculated to prevent the discussion of topics likely to affect the authority of Government or to be injurious to the public interest." Similar regulations were promulgated in Bombay in 1819 by the Governor of Bombay.

After the departure of Lord Hastings, Mr. Adam who officiated as Governor-General of India, issued new regulations for the reimposition of press censorship. On April 4, 1823 new measures for regulating the press were issued. It stated among other things that "no newspaper, magazine, register, pamphlet, or other printed book or paper whatsoever in any language or character should print public news and intelligence or strictures on the acts, measures and proceedings of government, or any political events or transactions whatsoever without having obtained a license for that purpose from Governor-General-in-Council." Regulations were also issued concerning the establishment of printing presses on taking license from the Government.

However on August 3, 1835 during the Governor-Generalship of Sir Charles Metcalfe, a new Press Act was passed repealing Adam Regulation of 1823 in Bengal and Bombay Regulations of 1825 and 1827 abolishing restrictions on the Indian Press. During Mutiny, Government curtailed this freedom and Lord Canning's government passed the Press Act of 1857. This was further modified in 1867.

During the Viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, on 14th March, 1878, the Vernacular Press Act—an Act for the Better Control of Publications in Oriental Languages, was passed. Under this Act, the printer and publisher of Indian language paper could be called upon to enter into a bond not to publish anything likely to excite disaffection against government. If a newspaper contravened this law, it was first warned and if the offence was repeated, its equipment was liable to be seized.

During the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon, the liberal Viceroy, a bill was introduced on 7th December, 1881 for the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act. It was passed in 1882.

In 1908, during the political murders in Bengal, the *Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act* was passed with the object of dealing with papers inciting to murder or acts of violence.

With the growth of the Nationalist movement and starting of numerous papers, Government was alarmed to the passing of *Press Act of 1910*.

In 1921 Government of India in response to strong agitation against wide powers of the Press Act, set up a Committee to examine Press and Registration of books Act, 1867 and Indian Press Act, 1910 and to suggest

modifications on the then existing laws. The Committee recommended the following—(1) Press Act of 1910 should be repealed, (2) Newspaper Incitements to Offences Act should be repealed, (3) Press and Registration of Books Acts and Post Office Act should be amended to meet certain conclusions. The necessary amendments were made in the Act of 1922.

With the launching of the Civil Disobedience movement in 1930, a Press Ordinance was promulgated in 1930 which provided that security deposits of Rs. 500 to Rs. 2,000 could be demanded from the keeper of the press, and on the security being forfeited a fresh security of Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 10,000 could be demanded. If this further security was forfeited, the Government might forfeit the printing press. This Ordinance was later placed on the Statute Book as the Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act, 1931.

Press & Newspaper Organisations—There are at present three bodies in India which seek to promote the welfare of Indian newspapers—(1) *Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society*, the objects of which are as follows: (a) to act as a central organisation of the Press of India, Burma and Ceylon, (b) to promote and safeguard the business interests of members as affected by the action of Legislatures, Governments, the Law Courts, municipal and local bodies and associations or organisations, etc., (c) to collect information upon all topics having a practical interest for members and to communicate the same to them, (d) to promote co-operation in all matters affecting the common interests of members, (e) to hold periodical conferences of its members to discuss and determine action on matters of common interests, (f) to make rules to govern the conduct of its members in specified matters, to provide penalties for the infringement thereof, and to provide means of determining whether there has been such infringement, (g) to maintain a permanent secretariat in India which should watch over the interests of members and should permit of a constant interchange of information and views, (h) to do all such other things as may be conducive to the attainment of the aforesaid objects.

(2) *All-India Newspaper Editors Conference* was started in 1940. Its constitution is as follows: (a) to preserve the high traditions and standards of journalism, (b) to serve and safeguard the interests of the press in regard to the publication of news and fair comment, (c) to secure all facilities and privileges to the press for the due discharge of its responsibilities, (d) to represent the press in India in its relations with public and public institutions and particularly in its relations to government, to set up Committees who would act *liaison* between the government and the press as a whole, (e) to establish and develop contacts with Associations with similar objects in other countries.

Another Association has also been started known as *Indian Languages Newspaper Editors' Conference* for the welfare of newspapers in Indian Languages.

NEWSPAPERS & PERIODICALS IN INDIA

Newspapers		Periodicals		Newspapers		Periodicals	
1920-21	955	2,197	1936-37	2,123	3,046		
1924-25	1,342	3,018	1938-39	2,752	3,301		
1928-29	1,642	2,781	1939-40	2,872	3,113		
1932-33	1,594	2,693	1940-41	2,609	2,880		

INDIAN NEWSPAPERS

(1) Indian Dailies

ENGLISH

CALCUTTA :

Statesman

Editor : W. C.

Wordsworth

Amrita Bazar Patrika

Editor : T. K. Ghose

*Hindustan Standard**Advance**Star of India**Nationalist**Morning News**Eastern Express*

BOMBAY :

Times of India

Editor : Sir F. Low

Bombay Chronicle

Editor : S. A. Brelvi

*Morning Standard**Bombay Sentinel**Free Press Journal*

Editor : Sadanand

MADRAS :

Hindu

Editor : K. Srinivasan

*The Mail**Indian Express*

PATNA :

Indian Nation

Editor : C. H. V. Rao

Searchlight

Editor : Murli-

manohar Prosad

ALLAHABAD :

*Leader**Amrita Bazar Patrika*

Editor : T. K. Ghose

LUCKNOW :

Pioneer

Editor : H. E. B.

Catley

National Herald

DELHI :

Hindustan Times

Editor : Devdas

Gandhi

Dawn

Editor : Altaf

Hossein

National Call

Editor : J. N. Sahn

LAHORE :

C. & M. Gazette

Editor : F. W. Bustin

*Tribune**Daily Herald*

KARACHI :

*Daily Gazette**Sind Observer*

Editor : K. Punniiah

NAGPUR :

Hitavada

Editor : A. D. Mani

Nagpur Times

ORISSA :

New Orissa

BENGALI

*Ananda Bazar Patrika**Jugantar**Basumati**Krishak**Azad**Bharat**Prathaya**Matribhumi*

HINDI

Pratap (Cawnpur)*Hindustan* (Delhi)*Bharat* (Allahabad)*Viswamitra* (Calcutta)*Lokmanya* (Calcutta)*Sainik* (Agra)*Hindi Milap* (Lahore)*Loksahti* (Poona)*Adhikar* (Lucknow)*Sansar* (Benares)*Aj* (Benares)

URDU

Milap (Lahore)*Tej* (Delhi)*Pratap* (Lahore)*Rojana Hind* (Cal.)

GUJRATI

*Bombay Vartman**Jam-e-Jamshed**Janmabhumi* (Bom.)*Sanj Vartman**Bombay Samachar**Nutan Gujrat*

MARHATI

Navakal
Navasakti
Sangram
Sandhyakal
Pravat
Lokmanya

Hindustan
Dinsari

TELEGU

Andhra Patrika
(2) Eng. Monthlies
Modern Review (Cal.)
Indian Review (Mad.)
Caravan (Delhi)

Indian Social Reformer
Capital (Calcutta)
Commerce (Bombay)
Orient (Calcutta)
People's Age (Bom.)
Roy's Weekly (Delhi)
Maharatta (Poona)
Indian Listener (Delhi)
—Organ of A.I.R.

TAMIL

Dhinamani
Swadesha Mitran
Tamil Mani
Hanuman

(3) English Weeklies (4) Indian News Service
Blitz (Bombay)
Forum (Bombay)
Illustrated Weekly of India (Bombay)
Associated Press of India
United Press of India
Orient Press.

FOREIGN NEWSPAPERS

ENGLAND :

Daily Mail (Ind.)
Daily Telegraph
Daily Express (Ind.)
Manchester Guardian
Evening Standard
(Cons.)
Daily Herald (Labour)
The Times (Ind.)
Daily Mirror (Ind.)
News Chronicle (Lib.)
Star (Lib.)
U.S.A. :
New York Times
N. Y. Herald Tribune

Christian Science
Monitor
Chicago Daily News
Chicago Tribune

U.S.S.R.:

Pravda
Izvestia
Red Star

JAPAN :

Asahi Simbum
Nichi Nichi Simbum
Miyako Simbum
Osaka Minichi
Japan Chronicle

GERMAN :

Berliner Lokal Anzeiger
Berliner Tageblatt

Voelkischer Beobachter
Frankfurter Zeitung

International News Agencies

Br.—Reuters' Service.
Globe.
French—Havas Agency
U.S.S.R.—Tass Agency
U.S.A.—Associated Press of America.
U. Press of America.
German—D. N. B.
Italy—Stafani
Japan—Koyodo

Washington Star

INDIAN STATES

Indian States cover an area of 5,98,138 square miles or nearly two-fifths of the total area of India and have a total population 92,973,000 according to 1941 census. Indian States cover 38.8 per cent of the area and 23.4 per cent of the population in India.

There are 562 Indian States. The three largest States are Hyderabad in the South, with an area of 82,698 square miles and contains within its borders the world-famed caves of Ajanta and Ellora, the Fort of Golconda and the tomb of Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb. Jammu and Kashmir in the North with an area of 85,885 square miles and Kalat with 73,279

square miles. The smallest States is the State of Bilbari, having a population of 27 souls and an annual revenues of eighty rupees.

A feature that distinguishes bigger Prince from smaller Prince is that the former is entitled to a salute of guns when he enters British India. Of the 562 States 149 are entitled to such a salute. Five of them—Baroda, Gwalior, Hyderabad, Kashmir and Mysore are entitled to the maximum of 21 guns; Six of them—Bhopal, Indore, Kalat, Kolhapur, Travancore, Udaipur—to 19 guns, and thirteen—Bhawalpur, Bharatpur, Bikaner, Bundi, Cochin, Cutch, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Karauli, Kotah; Patiala; Rewa, Tonk to 19 guns; of the rest, 115 States have salutes ranging from 13 to 9 guns.

The following will give an idea of how the number is made up—(1) States whose Rulers are members of the Chamber of Princes in their own right—135 States, (2) States whose Chiefs are represented by election in the Chamber of Princes—108 States, (3) Talukas, Jagirs, etc.—319 States.

The States may be roughly grouped as follows:—

(1) *Rajput States including Kashmir*, (2) *Hyderabad and Muslim States* (3) *Maratha States*, (4) *Sikh States*, (5) *Mysore and Southern Indian States*, (6) *Orissa Feudatory States*.

Position of the Indian States

The States are governed by hereditary rulers under the suzerainty of the Crown. Indian States have no recognition internationally and the direction of foreign policy is exclusively in the hands of the Paramount Power. Over the internal affairs of the State, the rulers exercise varying degrees of control, but their authority is in all cases limited by their relationship to the Paramount Power which is determined by treaties, supplemented by usage and sufferance. The defence against foreign and domestic enemies is the ultimate responsibility of the Paramount Power. It has further the right and obligation of intervening in the internal administration of Indian States. This Paramountcy jurisdiction is exercised by Governor-General with the designation of Crown Representative.

Chamber of Princes

The Chamber of Princes was inaugurated in February 1921, as a permanent consultative body. It meets periodically for the discussion of matters affecting the Indian States or of common concern to the States and to British India. It consists at present of 109 Rulers of States who are members in their own right, together with 12 Rulers elected as representatives by 127 other States. The Chancellor, Pro-Chancellor and Standing Committee are annually elected by the Chamber from among the members.

Standing Committee

The Standing Committee of Princes consists of 35 Princes in which permanent and semi-permanent seats have been allotted to the 18 major States and the rest of the seats thrown open to election by regional groups.

Standing Committee of Ministers

A Standing Committee of Ministers to which the more technical work is entrusted, has also been constituted on a similar basis as above.

Combination of Smaller States

A scheme of qualified merger of smaller Indian States with neighbouring larger ones, was announced in April, 1943 as owing to the slenderness of their individual resources and general aversion from neighbourly co-operation the smaller states are unable to provide adequate amenities for their subjects. A scheme for attaching some hundreds of petty States of Western India to larger neighbouring States such as Baroda and Nawanagar was announced.

PRINCIPAL INDIAN STATES

	<i>Area in Sq. miles.</i>	<i>Average annual Income (Rs.)</i>	<i>Payment to Govt. (Rs.)</i>
Assam :			
Manipur	8,638	7,68,000	30,000 0 0
Baluchistan :			
Kalat	73,278	14,40,000
Baroda & Guzrat States :			
Baroda	8,164	2,38,37,000
Balasinor	189	2,83,820	9,766 0 0
Bansda	215	7,38,000	154 0 0
Baria	813	11,74,000	21,924 0 0
Cambay	392	13,07,472
Chota Udaipur	890	11,26,000	9,000 0 0
Dharampur	704	8,72,551
Jawar	308	4,22,000	9,231 0 0
Lunawada	388	5,60,000
Rajpipla	1,517	25,54,506
Sachin	49	3,79,000
Sant	394	3,90,819	5,385 0 0
Bhutan :			
Bhutan	18,000	3,50,00
Central India (Bhopal Agency) :			
Bhopal	6,924	80,00,000	1,61,290 5 0
Dewas (Senior)	449	6,50,000	14,337 4 7
Dewas (Junior)	419	6,83,000	14,237 4 7
Khilchpur	273	2,92,000	11,134 3 6
Narsingarh	734	7,42,000
Rajgarh	962	10,79,000
Central India (Bundelkhand Agency) :			
Ajaigarh	802	3,45,000	7,013 12 0
Baoni	121	1,50,000

	Area in Sq. miles.	Average annual Income (Rs.)	Payment to Govt. (Rs.)
Baraunda	218	53,000	8,583 6 9
Charkhari	880	6,30,000
Chhatarpur	1,130	7,55,000
Datia	912	13,66,000
Maihar	407	4,08,000
Nagod	501	2,36,000
Orchha	2,080	13,82,000	9,955 0 0
Panna	2,596	8,96,000
Samthar	178	3,50,000
Central India (Indore Agency) :			
Indore	9,934	1,26,54,000
Rewa	13,000	51,80,000
Central India (Malwa) :			
Alirajpur	836	4,96,000	1,271 0 0
Barwani	1,178	10,83,000	3,389 0 0
Dhar	1,800	17,60,000	6,601 0 0
Jaora	602	12,44,000	1,37,127 0 0
Jhabua	1,336	4,28,000	1,271 0 0
Ratlam	693	10,00,000	42,000 0 0
Sailana	297	2,61,000	21,000 0 0
Sitamau	202	2,71,000
Eastern States (Bengal States Agency) :			
Cooch Behar	1,318	29,93,000	67,700 15 0
Tripura	4,116	26,44,000
Mayurbhanj	4,243	29,41,000	1,068 0 9
Eastern States (Chhattisgarh States Agency) :			
Kalahandi	3,754	6,25,000	16,000 0 0
Patna	2,511	9,07,000	13,000 0 0
Eastern States (Orissa States Agency) :			
Sonepur	906	4,92,000	12,000 0 0
Gwalior, Benares and Rampur :			
Gwalior	26,367	2,67,65,000
Benares	875	19,38,308	2,19,000 0 0
Rampur	892	45,50,000
Hyderabad	82,698	8,42,13,000	2 Kashmir shawls
Jammu & Kashmir	85,885	2,54,79,000	and 3 Romals.
Kolhapur & Deccan States :			
Kolhapur	3,217	59,93,578
Bhor	910	8,83,638	4,684 0 0
Janjira	379	8,06,007
Sangli	1,136	16,80,244
Mudhol	368	4,64,536	2,672 0 0
Sawantwadi	930	6,40,000

	<i>Area in Sq. miles</i>	<i>Average annual Income (Rs.)</i>	<i>Payment to Govt. (Rs.)</i>
Madras States :			
Cochin	1,480	87,58,000	2,00,000 0 0
Pudukkottai	1,179	20,47,000
Travancore	7,661	2,45,28,000	7,96,430 0 0
Mysore	29,475	3,66,96,000	24,50,000 0 0
North-West Frontier :			
Chitral	4,000	<i>Not known</i>	<i>Receives allow- ance from Govt. of India</i>
Punjab States :			
Bhawalpur	16,434	1,47,00,000
Chamba	3,127	9,98,000	2,307 4 0
Faridkot	638	17,00,800
Jind	1,299	34,40,000
Kapurthala	599	34,60,000
Khairpur	6,050	29,41,000
Loharu	226	1,29,000
Malerkotla	165	7,75,000
Mandi	1,139	13,13,000	1,00,000 0 0
Patiala	5,942	1,66,00,000
Nabha	947	30,14,000
Suket	392	3,00,000	11,000 0 0
Rajputana (Rajputana Agency) :			
Bikaner	23,181	1,22,64,000
Sirohi	1,988	10,03,000
Sikkim	2,818	4,72,000
Western India States :			
Bhavnagar	2,961	1,47,76,273	1,28,060 0 0
Cutch	8,249	26,33,270	2,257 15 0
Dhrangadhra	1,167	15,00,000	40,672 0 0
Dhrol	282	2,52,788
Gondal	1,024	50,00,000	49,096 0 0
Idar	1,669	21,00,000
Janjira	53	3,69,577
Junagadh	3,337	86,28,291	28,394 0 0
Limbdi	343	7,89,707	54,517 1 0
Morvi	822	56,39,000	9,263 0 0
Nawanagar	3,791	92,67,507	50,012 0 0
Palitana	300	8,12,000
Porbandar	642	28,00,000	21,302 0 0
Radhanpur	1,150	5,87,000
Rajkot	282	14,04,597	18,991 0 0
Wadhwan	242	5,70,000	26,099 8 8
Wankaner	417	7,35,000	17,422 0 0

	<i>Area in Sq. miles</i>	<i>Average annual Income (Rs.)</i>	<i>Payment to Govt. (Rs.)</i>
Punjab Hill States :			
Bashahr Proper ..	3,439	5,90,000	3,945 0 0
Bilaspur ..	453	2,98,000	8,000 0 0
Sirmur (Nahan) ..	1,045	11,78,000
Tehri Garhwal ..	4,500	21,06,258
Rajputana (Eastern Rajputana States) :			
Bharatpur ..	1,978	33,74,000
Bundi ..	2,205	12,19,000	1,20,000 0 0
Dholpur ..	1,173	15,76,000
Jhalawar ..	824	7,35,000	30,000 0 0
Karauli ..	1,227	7,21,000
Kotah ..	5,714	47,93,000	*4,34,720 0 0
Rajputana (Jaipur Agency) :			
Alwar ..	3,158	34,04,000
Jaipur ..	15,610	1,34,63,000	4,00,000 0 0
Kishengarh ..	837	7,50,000
Shahpura ..	405	4,32,000	10,000 0 0
Tonk ..	2,543	22,49,000
Rajputana (Marwar & Southern Rajputana States) :			
Banswara ..	1,606	4,13,000	17,500 0 0
Dungarpur ..	1,460	6,37,000	17,500 0 0
Partabgarh ..	873	5,87,000	36,350 0 0
Udaipur ..	12,170	19,19,000	2,66,000 0 0
Rajputana (Western Rajputana States) :			
Danta ..	347	2,01,000
Jaisalmir ..	15,980	4,34,000
Jodhpur ..	36,120	1,58,32,000	†2,13,000 0 0
Palanpur ..	1,794	11,34,000

* Of this Rs. 2,00,000 has been suspended.

† Of this Rs. 1,15,00 has been suspended.

Salutes to Indian Ruler & Chiefs

21 Guns

Gaikwar of Baroda.
 Maharaja Scindia of
 Gwalior.
 Nizam of Hyderabad
 & Berar.
 Maharaja of Jammu &
 Kashmir.
 Maharaja of Mysore.

19 Guns

Nawab of Bhopal.
 Maharaja Holkar of
 Indore.
 Khan (Wali) of
 Kalat.
 Maharaja of Kolhapur.
 Maharaja of Travan-
 core.
 Maharana of Udaipur.

17 Guns

Nawab of Bhawalpur.
 Maharaja of Bharat-
 pur.
 Maharaja of Bikaner.
 Maharao Raja of
 Bundi.
 Maharaja of Cochin.
 Maharao of Cutch.
 Maharaja of Jaipur.

Maharaja of Jodhpur.
 Maharaja of Karauli.
 Maharao of Kotah.
 Maharaja of Patiala.
 Maharaja of Rewa.
 Nawab of Tonk.

15 Guns

Maharaja of Alwar.
 Maharawal of Bansi-
 wara.
 Maharaja of Datia.
 Maharaja of Dewas
 (Senior).
 Maharaja of Dewas
 (Junior).
 Maharaja of Dhar.
 Maharaja Rana of
 Dholpur.
 Maharawal of Dungar-
 pur.
 Maharaja of Idar.
 Maharawal of Jaisal-
 mir.
 Mir of Khairpur.
 Maharaja of Kishen-
 garh.
 Maharaja of Orcha.
 Maharawal of Parteb-
 garh.
 Nawab of Rampur.
 Maharaja of Sikkim.

Maharao of Sirohi.

13 Guns

Maharaja of Benares.
 Maharaja of Bhavna-
 gar.
 Maharaja of Cooch
 Bihar.
 Maharaja of Dhran-
 gadhra.
 Nawab of Jaora.
 Maharajrana of
 Jhalawar.
 Maharaja of Jind.
 Nawab of Junagadh.
 Maharaja of Kapur-
 thala.
 Maharaja of Nabha.
 Maharaja of Nawa-
 nagar.
 Nawab of Palanpur.
 Maharaja of Porban-
 dar.
 Maharaja of Rajpipla.
 Maharaja of Ratlam.
 Maharaja of Tripura.

11 Guns

Maharaja of Ajaigarh.
 Raja of Alirajpur.
 Nawab of Baoni.
 Rana of Barwani.

Maharaja of Bijawar.
 Raja of Bilaspur.
 Nawab of Cambay.
 Raja of Chamba.
 Maharaja of Charkhari.
 Maharaja of Chhatar-
 pur.
 Mehtar of Chitral.
 Raja of Faridkot.
 Maharaja of Gondal.
 Nawab of Janjira.
 Raja of Jhabua.
 Nawab of Malerk-
 kotla.
 Raja of Mandi.
 Maharaja of Manipur.
 Maharaja of Morvi.
 Raja of Narsingharh.
 Maharaja of Panna.
 Raja of Pudukkottai.
 Nawab of Radhanpur.
 Raja of Rajgarh.
 Raja of Saliana.
 Raja of Samthar.
 Maharaja of Sirmur.
 Raja of Sitamau.
 Raja of Saket.
 Maharaja of Tehri
 Garhwal.
 Raja Saheb of
 Wankaner.

MINERALS OF INDIA

India's Position—The distribution of minerals in India is very localised. The main coal-fields are situated in Gondwana region (Bengal, Bihar, Orissa) ; oil-fields are distributed in Assam and the Punjab. Iron-ores are also mainly centred in one place, other minerals such as borax, sulphur, magnesite, ilmenite, gypsum are scattered far and wide. This sort of scattering distribution of minerals makes co-ordination of production and distribution impossible. India lacks the base metals, her known deposits of tin, lead, copper and zinc being modest. But her most serious deficiency is for oil. Her production on the Burma frontier and in the North-West of India is only about eighty-seven million gallons a year, less than 1 p.c. of world's output. Yet it must be said that in some minerals, India holds a record position, such as—

1. India is the second biggest coal and iron ore producer in the British Empire.
2. She is the provider of a third of world's output of manganese.
3. India maintains her position as the second coal-producing country of the British Empire.
4. India is now the second largest producer of iron and steel in the British Empire excelled only by the United States.
5. India has the largest deposits in the world of *high grade iron ore*.
6. India lends the world for *magnetite* and *ilmenite*.
7. India supplies 80 p.c. of the world's output of mica.
8. India is the largest producer of ilmenite.
9. The chief mineral products of India proper are coal, manganese ore, gold, salt, iron ore, mica, saltpetre and monazite.

Distribution of Minerals

The *coal* is the most valuable mineral product and India stands eighth in the world. The bulk of Indian coal is concentrated in one enormous series of deposits known as 'Gondwana system.' This stretches east and west across Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Central India and Central Provinces. A little coal is also produced in Hyderabad and there are unexplored deposits in Assam, Punjab and Baluchistan. The coal-fields of Bihar and Bengal account for about nine-tenths of India's output. Jharia and Raniganj are the principal coal-fields and from them about 72 p.c. of total output is obtained. Jharia coal-field produces the best Indian coal. Largest market for Indian coal is home market. A Coal Grading Board under Government arranges for the classification and certification of the coal exported, so that buyers overseas may rely on quality supplies.

Next in importance to coal is *manganese*. India comes next to Russia on the list of countries producing manganese ore and accounts for about one-third of the world's output. Most of the ore is mined in the Central Provinces, but the Keonjhar and Sandur States, Bombay and Singhbhum also contribute. Principal customers of manganese are United Kingdom, France, Japan and U. S. A. India's normal annual output of manganese is slightly more than million tons. *Gold* takes the third place which in India is mined in the State of Mysore in Kolar where 95 per cent. of Indian output of gold comes. India's production of gold is only one per cent. of the total world production (excluding U. S. S. R.).

Fourth place is occupied by *Mica*. India is the biggest supplier of mica and is responsible for three-quarters of the world's production of block and sheet mica and probably 80 per cent. of this comes from Bihar and 20 per cent. from the Nellore district of Madras. This substance is indispensable to the electrical industry.

Petroleum is the last of five great minerals of India. India contributes only 1.10 per cent. of the world's production. The production comes from the Digboi field of the Assam Oil Company in Assam and from the Khaur and Dhulian fields of the Attock Oil Co. in the Punjab. It satisfies only about 15 p.c. of India's requirements.

India is singularly poor in deposits of *base metals*—tin, lead, zinc and copper. The tin occurs in the mica belt of Bihar and are of no practical importance. There is one area in which copper mining has been conducted—the copper belt of Singhbhum, Bihar.

India's resources in high-grade *Iron ore* are perhaps the greatest in the world. The deposits are found in Singhbhum, Keonjar, Bonai and Mayurbhanj States of Orissa. The ore is also found in the Bastar State, with large deposits in the Chanda and Drug Districts of Central Provinces and in the Bababudan Hills in Mysore.

Salt in India is available in three ways—(1) From sea water, (2) from inland lake and sub-soil water, (3) from beds or rock salt. Salts from sea water mainly comes from Bombay and Madras coasts. Of inland lakes and sub-soil water, Sambhor Lake in Rajputana is most famous. Rock salt is mainly obtained from Punjab Salt Range, Kohat in the N. W. F. P. and the Mandi State of Punjab. Salt Range of Punjab produces about 85 per cent. of rock salts.

Production of Salt in India is as follows—53,813 tons and Price Rs. 8,24,953 in 1937 and 38,698 tons and Price Rs. 5,94,014 in 1938.

One of the most striking features of India's mineral industry is the rapid rise in the production of *ilmenite*. India has now become the world's leading producer of this metal. It is the whitest of all substances and will replace lead more or more in the manufacture of white pigment. The mineral occurs in the "Black Sand" of the beaches near Cape Comorin, the southern-most point of India.

Monazite and *Zircon* are also available on the beach sands of Travancore and Cape Comorin. They are recovered by washing and magnetic separation. Zircon yields Zirconia, a high grade refractory and also an alloy material. In monazite India leads all other countries of the world. About 88 p.c. of this mineral is supplied from India.

Chromite, the oxide of chromium and iron used for furnace lining is mined in Baluchistan, Mysore and the Singhbhum District of Bihar.

Magnesite is a furnace liner and is obtained in the hills of Salem District of Madras and also in Mysore State.

India has vast deposits of good *Bauxite* scattered all over the country. The typical examples are Tungan Hill, only 30 miles from Bombay city. There are also vast quantities in Balaghat, Jabulpore, Mandala, Seoni and Nandgaon districts of the Central Provinces and in Bihar. It is largely used as filtering material in petroleum refineries and for the manufacture of alum and aluminium.

Of the other minerals useful in industry India is already producing *gypsum* (Kashmir, Madras, Punjab, Rajputana, U. P.); *Steatite* (Guntur in Madras, Bihar, Central India, Central and United Provinces, Eastern States of Mysore and Rajputana); *Fuller's earth* (C. P., Punjab and Rajputana); *Barytes* (Madras and Rajputana); *Ochres* (Central India, Central Provinces, Eastern States, Madras, Orissa and Rajputana); *Graphite* (Mysore, C. P., Madras, Eastern States); *Tungsten ore* (Jodhpur State);

Asbestos (Eastern States, Mysore and Rajputana); *Felspar* (Mysore and Rajputana); *Garnet sand* (Madras); *Bentonite* (Jodhpur); *Apatite* (Bihar and Madras); *Tantalite* (Monghyr in Bihar) and *Antimony ore* (Chitral State).

Precious Stones :—Actual diamond mines are in the State of Panna, Central India. *Sapphires* of a very clear blue colour are obtained in Kashmir at an altitude of 14,000 ft. *Garnets* of a rich deep purplish red are found in Barwar District in Kishengarh State and the adjoining tracts of Jaipur State.

Cement manufacture on large-scale was started in 1914. In most cases the lime-stone used belongs to the Vindhya and can be so selected as to contain a considerable amount of clay constituent required; the remainder, if any, being made up from shales associated with limestone or from local surface salts.

Gypsum is widely developed in immense quantities in Trichinopoly (Madras), Baluchistan, Punjab, N. W. F. Province and associated with Salt Marl in the salt range, Bikaner and Jodhpur States. Gypsum is extensively used in cements and plasters, as paints and fillers and as 'top-dressing' in agriculture.

Steatite is also known as soap-stone, pot-stone, talc and in its powdered form as 'french chalk,' is one of the most variously used industrial minerals. It is available in Jaipur State, Guntur District in Madras, and Sulphur.

Sulphur—Large deposits of high grade rock sulphur have been discovered at Koh-i-Sultan in Baluchistan.

Value of total Mineral Production

Lakhs (Rs.)

Lakhs (Rs.)

1921	32,83	1933	22,08
1925	36,59	1937	30,49
1929	30,04	1938	34,14

Gold

(In thousand ounces)

1939	317	1942	260
1940	289	1943	252
1941	286	1944	188

Iron

Tons

Rs.

No. of Persons
employed

1935	2,364,297	35,50,327	16,833
1936	2,526,931	39,11,870	21,118
1937	2,870,832	45,86,378	20,043
1938	2,743,675	48,56,974	19,577

Mica

		<i>Cwts.</i>	<i>Rs.</i>	<i>No. of Persons employed</i>
1935	..	58,754	25,52,612	23,108
1936	..	87,071	32,52,350	15,151
1937	..	104,658	39,50,281	29,421
1938	..	123,169	42,04,633	31,066

Salt

	<i>Quantity (tons)</i>	<i>Value (Rs.)</i>		<i>Quantity (tons)</i>	<i>Value (Rs.)</i>
1937	1,493,021	81,47,365	1938	1,539,663	95,18,383

Petroleum

	<i>Gallons</i>	<i>Rs.</i>		<i>Gallons</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
1935	322,662,336	6,23,14,929	1937	75,657,857	1,37,06,864
1936	69,241,504	1,21,72,011	1938	87,082,371	1,65,43,142

Silver

	<i>Ounces</i>	<i>Rs.</i>		<i>Ounces</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
1938	22,295	29,877	1942	22,466	48,451
1939	22,745	33,361	1943	18,611	58,528
1941	22,929	41,597	1944	16,285	47,902

Manganese Ore

	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Rs.</i>		<i>Tons</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
1935	641,483	1,26,43,379	1937	1,051,594	4,29,53,068
1936	813,442	1,49,54,812	1938	967,929	3,92,94,762

Annual Consumption of Coal per head in Tons

India (1939)	..	0.07	Belgium (1937)	..	3.98
Great Britain (1938)	..	3.80	France (1937)	..	1.74
Germany (1937)	..	1.87	U. S. A. (1937)	..	3.31

Coal Production in India

	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Rs.</i>		<i>Tons</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
1930	23,803,048	9,26,25,323	1935	23,016,695	6,52,20,840
1931	21,716,435	8,26,98,364	1936	22,610,821	6,24,98,404
1932	20,153,387	6,80,96,604	1937	25,036,386	7,81,02,439
1933	19,789,163	6,11,86,083	1938	28,342,906	10,64,23,835
1934	22,057,447	6,30,60,951	1939	27,768,761	9,87,24,000

Consumption of Coal per Head

1934	..	0.06	1937	..	0.07
1935	..	0.06	1938	..	0.07
1936	..	0.06	1939	..	0.07

Coal Imports & Exports

	<i>Exports tons 000</i>	<i>Imports tons 000</i>		<i>Exports tons 000</i>	<i>Imports tons 000</i>
1939-40	2,008.95	17.87	1942-43	326.17	5.36
1940-41	1,940.65	5.08	1943-44	156.80	1.41
1941-42	1,549.97	12.45	1944-45	108.76	0.03

INDIAN TRADE & INDUSTRIES

In assessing India's Trade and Industries, it must be remembered that India is mainly a producer of food-stuffs and raw materials and this fact dominates the course of her trade. India's imports mainly consist of manufactured goods such as textiles, metals, machinery and millwork, vehicles, oil, paper and rubber. The principal commodities of internal trade are coal, coke, oilseeds, rice and wheat, salt, raw cotton, sugar, cotton piecegoods and livestock.

Indian industries are more or less localised, such as, iron and steel industry in Bengal and Bihar; Cotton industry in Bombay Presidency; Jute mills around Calcutta; Sugar mills in Bihar and U. P.; Cement in Central India; Paper mills mainly in Bengal, Bombay and U. P.; and Leather in U. P. and Madras.

With large industrial establishments, mining and plantations industries, small scale factories, India now ranks as one of the eighth great industrial countries of the world.

The principal features of India's trade are as follows:—

- (1) Foreign trade is carried mostly by sea.
- (2) Five articles, such as jute, tea, cotton, skin and rice form more than half of the total exports of the country.
- (3) 75 per cent. of the imports consist of manufactured goods.
- (4) Cotton dominates both imports and exports.
- (5) Half of the imports are from Great Britain.
- (6) Indian export exceeds her import.
- (7) In volume of trade India ranks fifth in the world.

India's major Industries—Steel, sugar, paper and cement are four major industries which have established themselves in the last twenty years. But comparatively raw industries such as paints, soaps, matches and chemicals have made striking advance in the last ten years.

The following are the Government departments connected with Indian Trade and Commerce.

(a) *Commercial Intelligence Department*—Created in 1905 and located at Calcutta. It also incorporates the Department of Statistics which ceased to exist in 1922. The main duty of this Department is the collection and dissemination of commercial information. It publishes various trade reports and journals. A new section known as the Statistical Research Branch has been established under this Department.

(b) *Geological Survey Department*—The activities of this department are mainly directed to the compilation of a Geological map of India and to the collection and dissemination of information regarding the mineral resources of the country. The Department is responsible for the upkeep and administration of the geological section of the Indian Museum.

(c) *Department of Mines*—This Department came into existence in 1902 and is mainly responsible for the administration of Indian Mines Act. The Headquarters of the Department is at Dhanbad. The Department is closely associated with mining education of the country.

(d) *Patent Office*—is controlled by an officer known as the Controller

of Patents and Designs and is situated at Calcutta and all communications regarding patents and registration of design are addressed to him.

(c) *Customs Department*—Customs Department is controlled by the Central Board of Revenue which is attached to the Finance Department of the Government of India. The customs revenue is derived mainly from import duties.

(f) There is a *Board of Scientific and Industrial Research* to co-ordinate for the purpose of research utilisation and manufacture of various substances. An industrial research fund has been started in September 1942 to foster industrial development in this country by an annual grant of 10 lakhs for a period of 5 years. Messrs. Tata & Sons have donated 8,30,000 rupees for the construction and equipment of a National Laboratory to be located at Poona. Messrs. Indian Wire & Steel Products have given Rs. 1,00,000.

(g) Another important development is the recent establishment of *Research Utilization Committee* for the work of research utilisation, which aims at establishing a glass research institute in India, fuel research at Dhanbad and Tatanagar for better utilisation of coal.

(h) *Indian Stores Department*—is the outcome of the recommendations of the Stores Purchase Committee and was constituted in January, 1922. Its main function is to purchase in India and abroad in accordance with the Stores Purchase Rules, stores of all descriptions for the Departments of the Central Government and the minor Local Administration.

(i) *Tariff Board*—By notification in November 1945, the Government of India have revived the Indian Tariff Board. The Board will hold enquires into claims for protection or assistance from industries, which have been started or developed during war-time and are established on sound basis. The new Tariff Board will investigate the claims for assistance or protection of two types of industries started during the war, viz., those which have been started or developed in war-time and helped to sustain the national economy during an exceptionally difficult period and those which were started during the war and considered essential by government under conditions created by war. The former type includes such industries as non-ferrous metals, certain chemical industries, rubber manufactures and manufacture of steel hooks for baling and the latter, bichromates, steel pipes and tubes upto a certain bore length, aluminium, calcium chloride, calcium carbide and starch.

This new Tariff Board is the outcome of the evolution of India's fiscal policy since 1924 when the foundations for the policy of 'discriminating protection' was laid.

Approximate Number of Industrial Establishments—About 401 Cotton mills, 107 Jute mills, 150 Sugar mills, 14 Paper mills, 118 Match factories, 54 Leather factories and 500 Tanneries, 1,009 Rice mills, 63 Glass works, 265 Ool mills, 21 Ordnance factories, 14 Cement factories, 57 Heavy Chemical factories, 4 Iron & Steel factories, 27 Rubber factories, 120 Large Soap factories, 31 Large Woolen mills.

DESCRIPTION OF INDIAN INDUSTRIES

1. Cotton

First cotton mill in India was erected at Fort Gloster in Calcutta in 1818. But the real development of cotton mill industry dates from 1851 when Bombay Spinning and Weaving Mill was established in Bombay. Since then mills were started in Nagpur, Ahmedabad, Sholapur etc., where there were abundance of cotton producing tracts. The industry received a great stimulus during and after the World War.

India is one of the biggest cotton producing countries of the world, being second only to the United States of America. It grows in the dry region of Bombay as well as in the moist province of Bengal. The sticky black soil of the Deccan, Berar, Punjab, Madras, U. P., Bengal, Hyderabad, Central India, is ideal for cotton cultivation. Cotton is cultivated in Bombay, C. P., Baroda and Rajputana. Half the total area is confined to Bombay and Berar.

Average export of raw cotton represents no less than 44.34 per cent. of the total value of raw materials exported from India. The bulk of shipments of raw cotton has always gone to the Far East and the continent, but the United Kingdom in recent years is participating in an increasing degree in the trade.

In 1921 *Indian Central Cotton Committee* was established to improve the quality of Indian cotton in particular and to promote the cause of cotton cultivation in this country in general. The funds of Indian Central Cotton Committee is derived from a cess of as. 2 on every bale of Indian cotton exported from India or consumed in mills in provinces in India. Cotton Transport Act, Cotton Spinning and Pressing Factories Act, Bombay Cotton Markets Act, C. P. Cotton Markets Act and Madras Markets Act have been passed to check adulteration and promote better marketing.

Cotton Mills in British India

	No. of Mills	Looms	Spindles
1940	388	200,076	10,005,785
1941	390	198,574	9,961,178
1942	396	200,890	10,026,424
1943	401	201,761	10,130,568
1944	407	10,222,107

Production of Cotton Piece-goods Exports & Imports of Cotton Piece-goods

	Million yds.	Imports	Exports	Re-exports
1939-40	4,012.4	159.1	221.3	16.7
1940-41	4,269.4	447.0	390.1	43.5
1941-42	4,493.4	118.6	772.5	85.1
1942-43	4,109.3	13.1	819.0	16.3
1943-44	4,870.6	3.7	462.3	0.6
1944-45	4,695.1	5.2	414.9	0.4

Exports & Imports of Raw Cotton*(In thousand bales of 400 lbs. each)*

	<i>Exports</i>	<i>Imports</i>		<i>Exports</i>	<i>Imports</i>
1938-39	2,702.8	539.7	1942-43	301.0	490.6
1939-40	2,947.9	468.5	1943-44	281.5	426.1
1940-41	2,167.5	498.1	1944-45	317.1	512.3
1941-42	1,437.5	770.1			

Mill Consumption of India Raw Cotton in India*(In thousand bales of 400 lbs. each)*

1938-39	3,106.3	1942-43	4,033.8
1939-40	3,030.3	1943-44	4,344.6
1940-41	3,338.9	1944-45	4,090.6
1941-42	3,938.6		

2. Iron and Steel

We do not know now when iron was first produced in India, but looking at the famous Iron column at Kutub Minar near Delhi which up to now has never rusted, we can easily say that iron production in India is probably three thousand years old. The iron smelting still exists in India from very ancient times. The modern iron industry in India began in the year 1875 at Barakar near Asansol but the real beginning was made with the formation of Tata Iron and Steel Company at Sakchi (renamed Jamshedpur) in the Singhbhum district in 1907. The rapid expansion of the business was due to the stimulus it received owing to War. Pig iron is generally exported to Japan, United Kingdom, and U. S. A.

Subsidiary industries that have got up in Jamshedpur are steel tubs, tinplates, enamel ware, wire, nuts, railway wagons, tea and jute mill machinery, galvanized products, etc.

Since 1924 steel industry is under various protective tariffs which has helped much for its speedy development.

Deposits of high grade iron ore are to be found in the following places: (1) *Mysore* where big deposits of quartz-magnetite ore are available. (2) *Singbhum and Orissa*—in what is known as Singhbhum Iron Belt, consisting of Singhbhum District in which Tata Iron and Steel Company's Steel Works are situated, and neighbouring Orissa Feudatory States. This iron belt extends from Gurumahisani in Mayurbhanj State of Orissa through Keonjhar and Bonai to the Kolhan sub-division of Singhbhum. There exists one of the richest iron ore deposits in the world.

India is the second leading iron and steel producing country in the British Empire and this industry is now recognised as one of the biggest in India.

Steel Works in India:—1. Tata Iron & Steel Company Ltd. formed in 1907. 2. Indian Iron & Steel Company started in 1918 at Haripur and in 1936 acquired Bengal Iron Company. 3. Steel Corporation of Bengal in 1936 near the above Company. 4. Mysore Iron & Steel Works at Bhadravati started in 1930.

Imports (tons 000)

Iron &
SteelProtected
Steel & Iron

Exports (tons 000)

(Ex pig iron & iron ore)
Pig Iron Iron & Steel

1939-40	260.6	118.4	571.8	106.5
1940-41	182.7	77.9	599.5	104.0
1941-42	128.6	58.1	521.5	40.2
1942-43	48.6	22.9	242.1	6.1
1943-44	46.9	8.6	189.3	2.1
1944-45	87.1	23.7	159.0	3.1

3. Sugar Industry

The sugar industry now is one of the largest industries in India and second in importance only to cotton textiles. The output of sugar which was only about 300,000 tons in 1932-33 has now risen to over a million tons. It gives employment to well over 100,000 workers. The capital invested in the sugar industry is about Rs. 33 crores; 1.3 million tons of sugar are prepared annually, besides 3.9 million tons of gur (raw sugar) per annum.

The consumption of white sugar per head of population in India is only 7 lbs., while in United Kingdom it is 106 lbs.

The sugar industry in India is mainly concentrated in the northern Provinces, the United Provinces and Bihar. These two provinces normally produce 80 p.c. of the total output of the country. It is not generally realised that at the present time India has about the largest area under cane cultivation in the world.

Refined sugar is manufactured by three different processes in India, namely, (1) direct from cane from modern vacuum pan factories, (2) from cane by indigenous open pan factories, i.e., "Khandsaris" (through the intermediate process of Rab) and (3) from gur refined in modern factories.

The sugar industry was given protection for the first time in 1932 and since then the protection is being continued. So rapid was the development of sugar factories after this protection that, in the short space of a quinquennium, from being a country which was mainly dependent on foreign sources for supply for its requirements of sugar, India has now become the largest sugar producing country in the world. It is the second largest national industry of India.

The Indian Central Sugar-cane Committee was inaugurated in 1944 by the Government of India as a body corporate registered as a 'society'.

The Committee will undertake the improvement and development of the growing, marketing and manufacture of sugar-cane and its products. It will also initiate agricultural, technical and economic research on sugar-cane.

Research Work is carried at the following places, (1) Imperial sugar-cane station, Coimbatore; (2) Sugarcane sub-station, Karnal; (3) Agricultural Section, Imperial Agricultural Research Institute, Delhi.

• **Production & Imports of Sugar**

<i>Imports</i>	<i>in tons</i> (000)	<i>Imports</i>	<i>in tons</i> (000)
1939-40	255.1	1942-43	0.5
1940-41	19.8	1943-44	
1941-42	49.0		

<i>No. of</i> <i>Factories</i>	<i>Production</i> <i>in tons</i>	<i>No. of</i> <i>Factories</i>	<i>Production</i> <i>in tons</i>
1939-40	145	1943-44	1,304,000
1940-41	148	1944-45	1,065,000
1941-42	150	1945-46	1,185,000
1942-43	150		

Production of Gur

	<i>Tons</i>		<i>Tons</i>
1939-40	2,441,000	1942-43	3,015,000
1940-41	3,414,000	1943-44	3,500,000
1941-42	2,829,000	1944-45	3,750,000

Per Capita Consumption of Sugar

U. S.	103 lbs.	Japan	29 lbs.
U. K.	112 "	Australia	114 "
Java	11 "	New Zealand	115 "
Denmark	128 "	India	20 "
Egypt	29 "	Germany	59 "
France	54 "		

4. Lac

Lac is secreted by a type of insect, *Laccafer lacca*, which feeds on the sap of certain host trees, exuding the resin during its life cycle. In its refined form, it is known as *Shellac*. The chief lac-growing provinces is Bihar, particularly Chota-Nagpur division, where 60 per cent. of the total production of India is produced; other lac-growing areas are Central Provinces, Bengal, Assam, U. P., Orissa, South India and the Punjab.

The chief uses of lac have been in the gramophone industry, which consumes 30 to 40 per cent. of the annual output, electrical insulation industries, French polish and varnishing industries, hat stiffening industry, ceiling wax, grinding wheels and printing ink, adhesives, cement, pyrotechnic and leather-dressing industries, bangles, toys, etc.

Indian Lac Research Institute was started in 1925 at Namkum, five miles from Ranchi for the object of devising improved method of cultivation, to improve the quality of lac and to minimise the effect of insect enemies.

Export Figures of lac

	<i>Cwts.</i>	<i>Value.</i> (Rs.)		<i>Cwts.</i>	<i>Value.</i> (Rs.)
1935-36	487,581	15,836	1937-38	664,671	16,218
1936-37	833,964	23,421	1938-39	643,848	12,665

5. Paper

The first paper-making machine in India was erected and operated by a famous missionary, Dr. William Carey, over a century ago at Serampore on Hooghly River. In 1867 the Royal Paper Mill was established at Bally using in the first instance Dr. Carey's original plant and machinery. Other mills at Raniganj and Kankinara, near Calcutta, were started. About 15 years later the Upper India Couper paper mill at Lucknow and the Titaghur in Bengal and other provinces soon followed.

The paper industry in India received a great impetus in 1925 by the grant of protection. The duty imposed on imported wood pulp, some years later was instrumental in the development of the production of indigenous bamboo pulp which is now the main raw material for paper-making in the country.

India's newsprint requirements are always imported from Canada, Norway or Sweden.

The principal raw materials used are bamboo and "sabai" grass. Bamboo which is extensively found in Bengal, South-West India, is mainly in U.P., Bihar, Orissa and the Punjab. Waste paper, newspaper extensively used for inferior quality of paper. "Sabai" grass is grown and cloth cuttings are also used as ingredients in the manufacture of cheaper classes of papers.

Paper Production in British India

		<i>Tons.</i>			<i>Tons</i>
1939-40	..	59,574	1941-42	..	63,623
1940-41	..	65,598			

Imports of Newsprint

		<i>Tons.</i>			<i>Tons.</i>
1937-38	..	37,438	1940-41	..	30,731
1938-39	..	32,145	1941-42	..	28,204
1939-40	..	36,714			

6. Breweries in India

	<i>No. of breweries</i>	<i>Production (in gallons)</i>		<i>No. of breweries</i>	<i>Production (in gallons)</i>
1935	.. 7	1,254,588	1938	.. 6	1,176,766
1936	.. 6	1,159,470	1939	.. 6	1,234,478
1937	.. 6	1,239,629			

7. Hide and Skin

India to-day can fairly claim to be the world's major supplier of hides and skins, both raw and half-tanned. It is reckoned that one-third of the world's cattle are to be found in India. India now approximately produces 25,700,000 hides every year, valued at Rs. 6 crores. About 75 per cent. of Indian production of raw hides and about 45 per cent. of the goat and sheep skins are now-a-days locally tanned, the remainder being exported. Tanning industry falls into two categories, indigenous and modern. Indigenous types are carried out by chamars. Modern tanning

employs local tannings such a babul bark and myrobalans and they have been introduced in Cawnpore, Agra, Calcutta and Madras.

Chrome tanning has also developed at a phenomenal rate in the country, specially, in Cawnpore, Calcutta and Madras.

Attempt is being made by Government for grading of slaughtered cattle hides and for this, hide-grading stations have been started at slaughter houses at Delhi, Agra, Bombay, Bareilly, Karachi and Rampur.

Main training centres of leather industry are Bengal-Tanning Institute, Calcutta; Jullundar Training Institute, Jullundar; Government Training Institute, Bombay.

8. Cement

The first venture in the manufacture of Portland cement in India took place in 1904 in a small factory in Madras. Slowly the industry was making a great headway and boom years followed but this resulted in unhealthy competition and the production greatly exceeded demand which almost brought this industry into a state of collapse.

The *Indian Cement Manufacturers' Association* was formed with the object of limiting supplies and regulating prices by mutual agreement. Further progress was made with the formation of *Concrete Association of India* for the purpose of educating the public in the use of cement and providing free technical aid and advice to the consumer.

After this *Cement Marketing Company* came into being for the disposal of the manufacture of the member companies on the basis of quota for each. But after few years it became apparent that a fusion of manufacture and sales was essential for complete rationalization.

So on August 1, 1936 the Associated Cement Companies, Ltd. was formed in Bombay by the merging of all companies. But in recent years several companies have been formed in the various parts of the country which have not joined with the Associated Cement Companies. The number of factories at present is fourteen.

	<i>Tons</i>		<i>Tons.</i>
1935-36	890,683	1938-39	1,512,000
1936-37	997,414	1940-41	1,727,000
1937-38	1,169,894	1942-43	2,183,000

9. Silk

India is a great producer of raw silk. Various silk worms are reared in different parts of the country. The following are the principal varieties of silk—mulberry silk, tassar silk, endi and mugha. The four principal silk producing areas are (1) Mysore and Coimbatore District of Madras; (2) Murshidabad, Malda, Rajshahi and Birbhum Districts of Bengal; (3) Kashmir and (4) Assam. Assam produces silk for *endi* and *mugha* varieties. Kashmir is the most important silk centre in India and the industry is a state monopoly. Silk manufacture in India is principally a cottage industry. Chief silk trading centres are Amritsar, Benares, Jullun-

dar, Malda, Murshidabad, Bankura, Rajshahi, Bhagalpur, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Mysore, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Srinagar.

10. Jute

India's jute industry is the second largest textile industry in the world. Exports of raw and manufactured jute constitute about one-quarter of the total value of the exports of Indian merchandise.

Jute growing is confined almost entirely to the Ganges-Brahmaputra delta in the Presidency of Bengal and the province of Assam and of the total crop Bengal produces about 80 per cent. Yet, even in Bengal, the area under jute is only a small percentage of the cultivated area, varying from about six to nine per cent.

India enjoys a monopoly as the world's sole producer of Jute. The first jute-spinning mill was started at Rishra (Serampore) in 1855 and the first power-loom was introduced in 1859.

Jute manufacturing industry is localised in a small area on the banks of the Hooghly, near Calcutta. Jute manufacture may be divided into four classes: (1) *gunny bags*, used for packing rice, wheat, oilseeds etc., (2) *gunny cloth* or *hessians* used for baling cotton, wool and other fibres, (3) *coarse carpets* and *rugs*. (4) *cordage*.

Indian Jute is mainly exported to U. K., Germany, U. S. A., and France. Exports of manufactured jute occupies major portion of foreign trade of this country.

Agricultural Research Laboratories at Dacca and Technological Research Laboratories at Tollygunj are carrying out research into jute growing and jute trade.

Restriction of acreage—Compulsory restriction of jute acreage in Bengal came into force from the year 1941 and since then the acreage has been minimised to a considerable extent.

Indian Jute Mills Association is the governing body of this industry, although it possesses no statutory powers and all actions which are taken by the Association are on the basis of voluntary acceptance by its members. It has in its membership almost every mill in India and is controlled by a Committee of nine members representing all-India interest.

Indian Central Jute Committee is another important body constituted by the Government of India to watch over the interests of all branches of the jute trade from field to factory. The office is situated at 6, Hastings Street, Calcutta.

Jute Agricultural Research Laboratories are situated in Dacca for improvement of the plant, for reduction of loss due to diseases or insects, improvements in the methods of retting.

Technological Research Laboratories of the Central Jute Committee are situated at Tollyganj, Calcutta where spinning tests are carried on at a standard temperature and humidity. Day to day problems of mills are also tackled. There is also useful library on the technology of jute.

• Jute manufactures—Production

		<i>Tons (000)</i>			<i>Tons (000)</i>
1938-39	..	1,221.5	1941-42	..	1,258.8
1939-40	..	1,276.9	1942-43	..	1,052.9
1940-41	..	1,108.1	1943-44	..	946.7
			1944-45	..	975.0

Exports of Jute Manufactures including twist and yarn

		<i>Tons (000)</i>			<i>Tons (000)</i>
1938-39	..	956,302	1941-42	..	898,461
1939-40	..	1,083,321	1942-43	..	619,282
1940-41	..	924,118	1943-44	..	634,296
			1944-45	..	708,184

Exports of Raw Jute

		<i>Tons (000)</i>			<i>Tons (000)</i>
1939-40	..	570.0	1942-43	..	242.8
1940-41	..	243.5	1943-44	..	177.4
1941-42	..	314.9	1944-45	..	160.2

Jute Mills

	<i>No. of Mills</i>		<i>Paid-up Capital</i>	<i>Looms</i>	<i>Spindles</i>
1935-36	104	{	Rs. 19,97,07,038 £2,525,000	63,724	1,279,460
1936-37	104	{	Rs. 20,21,52,480 £2,525,000	65,273	1,300,077
1937-38	105	{	Rs. 20,29,05,640 £2,525,000 \$3,750,000	66,705	1,337,958
1938-39	107	{	Rs. 20,30,55,625 £2,250,000 \$3,750,000	67,939	1,350,466

11. Tobacco

India's share in the tobacco production of the world is very high and she is one of the leading tobacco-producing countries, being second only to U. S. A.

More than half the Indian tobacco is centred in five well-known places—(1) *North Bengal area* consisting of Rangpur, Jalpaiguri, Dinajpur and the State of Cooch Bihar, (2) *Guntur area* consists of the District of Guntur, Kistna and adjoining parts of Hyderabad State, (3) *North Bihar area* consisting of Muzaffarpur, Darbhanga and Purnea, (4) *Gujarat area* consisting of Anand, Borsad and Nadiad and Petlad and Bhadrans talukas of Baroda State, (5) *Nipani area* consisting of Belgaum and Satara districts of Bombay and also Kolhapur, Sangli and Miraj States.

The Government have set up an Indian Central Tobacco Committee to assist in the improvement and development of the production and marketing of tobacco and all matters incidental thereto.

Out of the receipts of excise duty on tobacco, a sum is being set up annually for research and development of tobacco. There are Tobacco Research Stations at Nadiad, Nipani, Guntur.

			<i>Area under tobacco (acres)</i>	<i>Yield of dried leaf (tons)</i>
1939-40	11,80,000	423,000
1940-41	11,25,000	449,000

12. Coffee

The Coffee industry is confined to Southern India, comprising the province of Madras, Orissa, Coorg and the States of Mysore, Travancore and Cochin.

Indian Coffee Cess Act 1935 provides for the creation of a fund to be spent by a committee for the promotion of cultivation, manufacture and sale of Indian coffee out of a levy of customs duty on all coffee produced and exported.

	<i>Area in acres</i>	<i>Quantity in lbs. of cured coffee</i>		<i>Area in acres</i>	<i>Quantity in lbs. of cured coffee</i>
1934-35	186,656	32,775,865	1938-39	185,244	40,110,639
1935-36	188,161	41,172,678	1939-40	183,941	34,821,717
1936-37	190,185	34,004,627	1940-41	182,051	31,000,000
1937-38	182,310	33,516,114			

13. Rubber

Rubber is mainly grown in Southern India. About 75 per cent. of the cultivation is in Travancore. Other places of cultivation are Madras, Cochin, Coorg and Mysore.

With a view to encouraging and ensuring maximum production of rubber, Indian Rubber Production Board has been set up by the Government of India with headquarters at Kottayam (Travancore State) in the heart of rubber producing area. The value of India's rubber production has enormously increased with Malay, Dutch East Indies and Burma being in enemy hands. Before the war Indian production represented about one per cent. of the total world production.

	<i>lbs. of dry rubber pro- duced in India</i>	<i>Area in acres</i>		<i>lbs. of dry rubber pro- duced in India</i>	<i>Area in acres</i>
1934	26,443,326	119,090	1937	32,296,507	125,732
1935	27,553,762	122,646	1938	31,065,759	125,311
1936	30,447,919	124,605	1939	31,390,663	133,962

BANKS IN INDIA

Classes of Banks in India : (1) Imperial Bank of India, (2) Exchange Banks whose head offices are located outside India, (3) Indian Joint Stock Banks, registered under the Indian Companies Act, (4) Indian Co-operative Banks, registered under the Co-operative Societies Act, II of 1912, (5) Reserve Bank of India, (6) Indigenous bankers who form an intermediate but a very important group.

(1) Imperial Bank of India

Imperial Bank of India was established in 1921 after amalgamation of three Presidency Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras originated in the days of East India Co. The capital of the three Presidency Banks at the time of their amalgamation was Rs. 3,75,00,000 in shares of Rs. 500 each fully subscribed. The additional capital authorised under the Imperial Bank Act, 1920 was Rs. 7,50,00,000 in shares of Rs. 500 each of which Rs. 125 per share has been called up making the present capital and reserve of the Bank Rs. 11,50,53,000 of which 5,62,50,000 has been paid up. The Management of the Bank is under a Board of Directors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay, Madras. Since the advent of the Reserve Bank, the Imperial Bank while functioning as agent of the Reserve Bank of India in those places where Reserve Bank has no branches, is no longer the official Bank to the Government, and the terms of its charter have been amended to permit it to expand its activities in the field of deposit and exchange banking.

Following are its main business—(1) it is the sole agent of the Reserve Bank of India at places in Br. India where there is a branch of the Imperial Bank of India and there is no branch of the banking department of the Reserve Bank. (2) Imperial Bank is now free to engage in foreign exchange business and also to do industrial banking.

The position of the Imperial Bank is as follows:—

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	Paid up Capital	Reserve	Deposits	Cash balances	Invest- ments	Loans & Advances
1937	5,63	5,50	81,08	13,43	47,62	29,37
1938	5,63	5,55	81,51	8,99	43,72	38,30
1939	5,63	5,60	87,84	11,09	38,02	48,28
1940	5,63	5,62	96,03	24,83	48,57	32,31
1941	5,63	5,62	108,92	15,27	64,39	38,88
1942	5,63	5,75	163,46	23,00	116,41	33,79
1943	5,63	5,85	214,53	53,36	130,20	40,60

(2) Exchange Banks

The main business of the Exchange Banks is financing the foreign trade of India. They purchase bills in foreign currency, make loans against the shipping bills and other documents and finance imports of gold and silver. They also play some little part in the financing of inland trade mainly the movement of goods for export or of goods imported.

The Exchange Banks furnish the immediate link with the outside world of trade and commerce. Primarily the exchange banks specialise in the finance of foreign trade and their beginning dates back to the Oriental Banking Corporation in 1842.

The big Exchange Banks are—National Bank of India, Lloyds Bank, Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China, Messrs. Grindley & Co., Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, Mercantile Bank of India, Eastern Bank, Yokohama Specie Bank, National City Bank of New York.

	<i>No. of Banks.</i>	<i>Capital and Reserves.</i>	<i>Deposits in India & Burma.*</i>	<i>Cash Balances in* India & Burma.</i>
1940	20	128,244	85,32,81	17,19,40
1941	17	105,953	106,73,07	13,39,75
1942	16	106,686	116,85,27	12,00,96
1943	16	106,807	140,19,13	17,24,47

* Burma figures excluded for 1942 and 1943.

(3) Joint Stock Banks

All the Indian Joint Stock Banks are registered under the Indian Companies Act.

The Joint Stock Banks are sub-divided into two classes, namely (a) those with a paid-up Capital and Reserve of Rs. 5 lakhs and over and (b) those banks with paid-up Capital and Reserves between one lakhs and less than Rs. 5 lakhs.

Joint Stock Banks are mainly commercial Banks. Indian Joint Stock Banks provide India's internal banking facilities. They receive deposits or mortgages, discount local bills, open cash credit accounts, advance loans against stock exchange securities, grain or cloth, buy and sell shares and transact other banking business. The agricultural business of these banks is small and is generally confined to big landholders and planters.

CLASS 'A'—Banks having a paid-up Capital and Reserve of Rs. 5 lakhs and over.

(In Thousands of Rupees)

	<i>No. of Report- ing Banks</i>	<i>Paid-up Capital and Reserves</i>	<i>Deposits</i>	<i>Cash Balances</i>
1942	69	19,01,56	202,74,88	47,29,76
1943	92	26,47,70	338,99,01	82,92,77

CLASS 'B'—Banks having a paid-up Capital and Reserves between Re. 1 lakh and Rs. 5 lakhs.

(In Thousands of Rupees)

	No. of Report- ing Banks	Total Paid-up Capital and Reserves	Deposits	Cash Balance
1942	136	2,71,35	15,60,22	4,59,31
1943	152	3,16,60	20,89,77	6,69,01

CLASS 'C'—Banks having paid-up Capital and Reserves between Rs. 50,000 and Re. 1 lakh.

(In Thousands of Rupees)

	No. of Report- ing Banks	Total Paid-up Capital and Reserves	Deposits	Cash-Balances
1939	112	77,15	2,98,17	51,98
1940	121	83,96	2,85,82	58,72
1941	124	89,69	3,93,32	97,58
1942	137	97,45	4,94,58	1,55,74
1943	141	98,26	6,25,96	1,97,22

CLASS 'D'—Banks having paid-up Capital and Reserve less than Rs. 50,000.
(In Thousands of Rupees)

	No. of Report- ing Banks	Total Paid-up Capital and Reserves	Deposits	Cash-Balances
1939	400	75,79	2,63,23	38,03
1940	332	60,21	2,71,90	46,69
1941	147	26,15	83,82	13,19
1942	133	22,50	74,86	13,20

(4) Co-operative Banks

The Co-operative Banking organization owes its origin to the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904. This Act was further amended by the Act of 1912. Under co-operative Societies Act, all classes of registered Societies whether in themselves primary units or federations of constituent societies are spoken as 'Societies'. In actual practice, however, the primary units are in some provinces known as banks and in others as societies.

The Co-operative banking system consists of the Provincial Bank at apex, the affiliated Central Banks, and lastly the primary societies affiliated to the Central Banks. According to the rules framed under the Act, these banks can not generally lend to non-members.

The functions of Co-operative Banks are as follows:—

- (1) Attracting deposits from money-lenders and professional classes.
- (2) Lending money to the primary co-operative societies.
- (3) Taking away the excess fund of a Co-operative Society and utilising it for making up the deficiency of others.
- (4) Supervising and guiding the actions of affiliated Societies.

CLASS 'A'—(*Capital and Reserve of Rs. 5 lakhs or over.*).

	No. of Banks	Capital and Reserves (Rs. 000)	Deposits and Loans held (Rs. 000)	Cash Balances
1939-40	41	5,48,22	22,94,33	1,01,35
1940-41	42	5,50,56	22,66,03	2,33,55
1941-42	42	5,55,19	27,04,19	3,16,77
1942-43	42	5,68,45	29,74,67	3,51,34

CLASS 'B'—(*One lakh and below 5 lakhs.*)

1939-40	274	5,68,03	16,14,43	1,26,52
1940-41	279	5,64,25	15,51,81	1,48,76
1941-42	292	5,95,43	17,00,38	1,77,92
1942-43	295	6,12,96	18,19,88	2,81,83

(5) Reserve Bank of India

Reserve Bank has been established in India from the 1st of April, 1935 in accordance with the provisions of the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934. It is a share-holders' bank and the entire paid-up share capital of Rs. 5 crores is owned by private share-holders with the exception of a nominal amount held by the Government.

The preamble to the Act states that the Bank was constituted to regulate the issue of Bank notes and keeping of reserves with a view to securing monetary stability in British India and generally to operate currency and credit system of the country to its advantage. The Bank has the sole right to issue bank notes in British India. It has the right to hold the cash balances of the more important commercial banks. Again, it has the right to transact government business in India, the central and Provincial governments being required under sec. 21 of the Act to entrust the Bank with all the money, remittance, exchange, and banking transactions and to deposit with the Bank all their cash balances free of interest. The Bank is also authorised to transact other business usually performed by Central Banks, such as the acceptance of money and deposit without interest, rediscounting of bills and the making of loans and advances, issue of demand drafts payable at its offices or agencies, the purchase and sale of securities etc.

The Management—The management of the bank is in the hand of a Central Board of Directors consisting of :—(a) Governor and two Deputy Governors are appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council after consideration of the recommendations made by the Board in that behalf ; (b) four Directors nominated by Governor-General-in-Council ; (c) eight Directors elected by the share-holders ; (d) one government official nominated by the Governor-General-in-Council.

There are Local Boards in each of the 5 cities of Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras and Rangoon. The members of the Local Board are (a) partly elected (five members) by the share-holders of the respective areas and (b) partly nominated (up to three members) by the Central Board.

Scheduled Bank—Any bank included in the Second Schedule of the Reserve Bank of India Act is known as Scheduled Bank. A Bank is included in the list of Scheduled Banks if it has a paid-up capital and reserves of the aggregate value of not less than 5 lakhs and is a company as defined in Clause (2) of S. 2 of Indian Companies Act, 1913 or a Corporation or a Company incorporated by or under any law in force in any place outside India.

Scheduled Banks are to keep with Reserve Bank a balance the amount of which shall not at the close of any business day be less than 5 per cent. of the demand liabilities and 2 per cent. of the time liabilities. Every Scheduled Bank shall have to send a weekly return, at the close of business on each Friday to the Central Government and to the Reserve Bank a return signed by two responsible officers showing various items.

(6) Indigenous Banks

The indigenous bankers consist mainly of *Shroffs*, small money lenders, the loan offices in Bengal and a few other provinces and lastly the *Nidhis* and *Chit* funds in Madras.

The indigenous banks are not required to register themselves under any law and as such there is no legal definition of the term available. The special feature that distinguishes indigenous banks from mere money-lenders is that they receive deposits and deal in *hundis* in addition to making loans. Agriculturists, traders, merchants and small industrialists have to depend largely on indigenous bankers and money-lenders in places where joint stock banks do not exist. The indigenous bankers are found to render valuable services in connection with financing of internal trade and middle-sized and small industries and inland remittance work.

(7) Land Mortgage Banks

Royal Commission on Agriculture in India in 1928 and Banking Enquiry Committee in 1930 recommended that Land Mortgage Banks based on Co-operative principles are desirable in many parts of India. The principal objects of these banks should be the redemption of the land and houses of the Agriculturists and Liquidation of old debts. Other objects are improvements of land and of methods of cultivation and the building of houses of agriculturists and purchase of land in special cases.

Land Mortgages Banks have been started under the auspices of the Co-operative movement in the Punjab, Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam, but the beginning is very small.

Bank Rates

Bank Rates							
	Imp. Bank	Federal Reserve Bank of New York	Bank of England		Reserve Bank	Federal Reserve Bank of New York	Bank of England
1935	3.46	1.50	2.00	1940	3.00	1.00	2.00
1936	3.00	1.50	2.00	1941	3.00	1.00	2.00
1937	3.00	1.33	2.00	1942	3.00	1.00	2.00
1938	3.00	1.00	2.00	1943	3.00	1.00	2.00
1939	3.00	1.00	2.27	1944	3.00		

Failure of Joint Stock Banks

	<i>No. of Failures</i>		<i>No. of Failures</i>		<i>No. of Failures</i>
1935	51	1937	65	1939	86
1936	88	1938	73	1940	60

Branches of Banks, 1943

	<i>No.</i>		<i>No.</i>
Reserve Bank	8	Non-Scheduled Banks with	
Imperial Bank	398	Capital and Reserves of	
Exchange Banks	84	Rs. 1 lakh or over	1,161
Other Scheduled Banks	1,400		

Cheque Clearances*

	<i>In lakhs of Rs.</i>		<i>In lakhs of Rs.</i>
1939-40	23,18,73	1942-43	28,15,71
1940-41	21,48,96	1943-44	42,81,48
1941-42	26,84,22	1944	52,79,30

* Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi, Rangoon, Cawnpore, Lahore, Delhi.

INDIAN INSURANCE**(a) Indian Companies**

	<i>No. of Companies</i>	<i>No. of Policies in force</i>	<i>Premium income (Rs. lakhs)</i>	<i>New Business (Rs. lakhs)</i>
1935	149	857,246	7,45	32,81
1936	165	1,015,406	8,44	37,80
1937	180	1,146,986	9,82	41,74
1938	186	1,300,869	11,50	46,68
1939	181	1,402,159	12,18	45,96
1940	174	1,447,134	11,73	35,23
1941	175	1,504,598	12,28	36,69
1942	177	1,528,217	12,74	37,90

(b) Non-Indian Companies

	<i>No. of Policies in force</i>	<i>Total Premium income (Rs. lakhs)</i>	<i>New Business (Rs. lakhs)</i>
1936	272,238	5,17	10,87
1937	272,310	5,27	9,66
1938	276,143	5,12	8,42
1939	165,646	3,13	4,11
1940	181,247	3,30	3,80
1941	165,250	3,26	5,37
1942	196,431	3,99	6,36

LABOUR INFORMATION

Labour Legislation

The first Factory Act was passed in 1881 and amended in 1891. But it was replaced by the comprehensive Act of 1911.

The Factory Act of 1911 as amended by Acts of 1922, 1923, 1926 and 1934 is the most comprehensive measure to improve the conditions of labour from all aspects.

The main provisions of this comprehensive Act were (1) qualification of registration on the employment of 20 persons, (2) non-employment of children under 12, (3) restriction in the hours of work of adults to eleven per day and sixty per week, (4) Compulsory rest intervals and weekly holidays, (5) prohibition of the employment of women between 7 P.M. and 5-30 A.M.

Factories Amendment Act of 1940 applied to power factories employing from 10 to 19 persons in which children are employed and extends to them the provisions of Factories Act of 1934.

There is also similar legislation for workers in the Indian mines. This is known as *Indian Mines Act*. In 1901 the first Mines Act was passed and it was subsequently amended in 1923. It limited the hours of work to 60 per week for workers above ground and 54 for workers under ground. No children (below the age of 13) were allowed to work below ground. No restriction was placed on the employment of women underground.

The Act was further amended in 1935 on the recommendations of Royal Commission on Labour. Following are the main provisions of the Act, limiting days and hours of work in the mines, prohibition of the employment of children below the age of 15. It also provides for a Mines Board of Health to look after the health of workers.

Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 (as amended upto 1933). The first Act was passed in 1923. It provided that compensation should ordinarily be given to workmen who had sustained injuries by accidents arising out of and in course of employment. Compensation would also be allowed in certain cases of diseases. The provisions of the Act have subsequently been enlarged by the amendments of 1926, 1929, 1931 and 1933. The general administration of the Act and settlement of disputes thereunder are entrusted to the Commissioners who have been given wide powers.

Another important Act for the welfare of workers is the *Payment of Wages Act of 1936*. This Act regulates the mode of payment of wages to persons employed in any factory, railway or in any industrial establishment. But the Act applies to wages less than two hundred rupees a month.

The Shop Legislation was undertaken in several provinces of India. This legislation is primarily meant for regulating hours of work, conditions of employment in shops and commercial establishments. Bombay was the first province to pass *Bombay Shops and Establishments Act in 1939*. Other provinces to follow are Bengal, the Punjab, Sind which passed similar Acts

in 1940. The Central Government also passed an Act known as *Weekly Holidays Act of 1942* which gives option for the application of this Act in any province which has no Shops' Legislation.

Another important Act that concerns labour is *Trade Disputes Act of 1929*. The increasing number and bitterness of trade disputes in India necessitated legislation for the arbitration and conciliation of trade disputes. So in 1929 the Trade Disputes Act was passed which was further amended in 1934. In case of disputes the parties may be referred to Courts of Enquiry or to the Boards of Conciliation to be set up by the Government. The findings are not binding on the parties but they influence public opinion which counts in matters like these.

In *Public Utility Services*, it is a criminal offence for workers on monthly wages to strike without notice. Employers carrying on such public utility services are made liable to be punished for locking out their employees without similar notice. *Strikes or lockouts* are regarded as illegal under this Act. Any sum collected or applied in direct support of such strikes is illegal.

The Mine Maternity Benefit Act of 1941 made provision for the payment of cash benefit to women for specified period before and after childbirth, a compulsory period of rest after delivery and also before delivery if notice is given.

Another Act was passed in 1938 known as *Employment of Children's Act* for the prevention of the employment of children who have not completed their fifteenth year in any occupation connected with transport of passengers, goods or mails by railway or in any occupation involving the handling of goods within the limits of any port to which for the time being any of the provisions of Indian Ports Act, 1908 are applicable. An amendment of Act, 1939, prohibits employment of children under 12 years in any bidi making workshop, carpet weaving, cement manufacture, cloth printing, manufacture of matches, etc., except those employed in family business.

The Industrial Statistics Act of 1942 was passed which permits the collection of statistics with regard to following matters, (1) price of commodities, (2) attendance, (3) living conditions, (4) indebtedness, (4) rents, (6) wages and earnings, (7) provident and other funds, (8) benefits, (9) industrial and labour disputes, etc.

War-time Measures

(1) *Essential Services Maintenance Ordinance* (1941) requires the workers to stick to their jobs.

(2) *National Service (Technical Personnel) Ordinance* (1940) utilises the technical personnel available in the country to the best advantage of the war efforts by releasing such personnel from other industrial undertakings.

(3) Under Ordinance 10 *National Service Labour Tribunal* has been constituted, 9 for larger provinces and 1 for Delhi and Ajmer-Marwara for taking persons in war services.

(4) *Rule 81-A of the Defence of India Rules 1942* gives power to the Government of India to ensure that disputes, when they arise are settled without the necessity of resorting to direct action. The Rule empowers the Government to refer industrial disputes to 'adjudication' with the provision that adjudication award can be enforced by an order of Government.

(5) *Technical Training Scheme*—instituted by the Government of India in 1940 to provide for the intensive training of a large number of skilled tradesmen required for the technical branches of the Defence Services and for ordnance and munitions factories.

(6) *Bevin Training*—outlined by Mr. Ernest Bevin in 1940 for training Indian workers in factories and workshops in England with the object of accelerating munitions production in India.

(7) *Statutory Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund of 1944* was created under powers conferred by S. 72 of the Government of India Act for improvement of conditions of labour in coal mines out of funds derived from a cess or an excise duty.

(8) *War Injuries (Compensation Insurance) Scheme*—was enacted by Central Government under War Industries Act, 1943, to impose obligation of the employer to pay compensation in respect of war injuries.

(9) *Creation of Employment Exchanges*—to build up an employment organisation which would be in a position to deal with the registration and voluntary placement of the many skilled and semi-skilled workmen who would be thrown out of employment on the termination of war.

Labour Welfare—The Government has appointed *Labour Welfare Officers* to help the Government to keep in contact with labour and with employers. They are to explain to labour and to employers what Government are doing and to bring to the notice of Government what employers and labour are thinking.

Second method which Government have adopted for maintaining the closest contact with labour problems is the establishment of *Tripartite Plenary Conference and the Standing Labour Committee*. The Plenary Conference is an advisory body and is composed of representatives from Provinces, States, employers and the employees and will consider all matters concerning labour of all-India importance. Standing Labour Committee is of smaller size than Conference, but having a similar tripartite composition.

TRADE UNIONS IN INDIA

The history of *Trade Unionism* in India practically dates from the termination of the Great War in 1918, when the rise in the cost of living, combined with the capitalistic effort to reduce the miserably low wages still lower, forced the workers to form a sort of temporary or permanent

unions for self-defence. Thus the industrial unrest just following the war, resulted in the creation of a number of labour organisations and trade unions were first organised in Madras under the leadership of Mr. B. P. Wadia in 1918.

At first stage trade unions were not very well organised. But the situation improved gradually and there was a remarkable growth of trade unions in 1921.

In spite of various difficulties an All-India Trade Union Congress was started to combine all trade unions and it began to hold annual sessions since 1920 and the All-India Railways Federation was formed in 1922.

The Trade Union Act was passed in 1926. In this Act a Trade Union has been defined as any combination, whether permanent or temporary, formed primarily for regulating the relations between workmen and workmen or between employers and the employed or impositions or restrictions on the conduct of any trade or business. The definition includes a federation of two or more unions. The Act makes provision for three groups of matters (1) conditions governing the registration of trade unions, (2) obligations to which trade union is subject to after registration, (3) the rights and privileges accorded to registered unions.

The registration of Trade Union is not compulsory. But certain valuable privileges are conferred on the registered bodies which are denied to those that remain unregistered. Any seven or more members can apply for registration and enjoy benefit conferred by the Act. Following are some of the rights :—

(1) Immunity in respect of civil or criminal proceedings against trade unions.

(2) The constitution of a separate fund for political purposes, i.e., promotion of civic and political interests of the members.

(3) Not less than half of the members of the executive shall be workers actually engaged in the trade.

Trade Union Congress

The All-India Trade Union Congress was first formed in 1920. The movement reached its peak in 1928-29. In 1929 this movement passed into the hands of extremists with communist leanings who captured the Congress at its tenth session at Nagpur. But the moderate section led by Mr. N. M. Joshi ceded from the Congress and formed a new organisation known as *Indian Trade Union Federation*. All-India Railwaymen's Federation also left the Congress. Further split occurred in the 11th session of the Trade Union Congress at Calcutta in 1931 when leftists formed *All-India Red Trade Union Congress*. Thus split of the parent body in three sections was complete.

But a Trade Union Unity Conference was called in 1931 at Bombay where a new federation known as *National Federation of Labour* was established. This newly formed Federation was amalgamated with *Indian*

Trade Union Federation at Calcutta in 1933 under the name of National Trade Union Federation.

In 1935 All India Trade Union Congress and National Trade Union Federation composed their differences and joint committee of the two organisations was formed. In 1938 at a special joint session of All-India Trade Union Congress and National Trade Union Federation, it was decided to combine two bodies into one central body. Fifty-fifty representation in the General Council was approved. This provisional settlement was ratified at the 18th session of the Congress in Bombay in 1940.

In spite of apparent union, the split in the Congress still persists. Mr. M. N. Roy and Mr. Jamnadas Mehta have formed another organisation known as *Trade Union Federation* at Delhi for whole-hearted support of Indian Labour for war purposes.

Trade Unions in British India

	No.	Member- ship	Total income (Rs.)		No.	Member- ship	Total income (Rs.)
1933-34 ..	191	237,369	11,19,936	1938-39 ..	562	390,112	13,13,977
1934-35 ..	213	208,071	10,34,119	1939-40 ..	667	399,119	13,82,176
1935-36 ..	241	284,918	10,90,046	1940-41 ..	727	513,832	71,38,100
1936-37 ..	262	268,326	12,44,927	1941-42 ..	747	573,520	..
1937-38 ..	420	257,306	10,60,105	1942-43 ..	693	685,299	..

Factories

	No. of Factories	No. of Notified Factories	Accidents	Average daily No. of women, adolescents, children
1942 ..	12,527	2,505	54,174	2,99,838
1943 ..	13,209	2,680	59,176	3,02,690
	No. of employees		P.C. of women to total factory population	P.C. of adolescents to total factory population
1942	2,99,838	11.5
1943	3,02,690	10.8

Industrial Disputes in India

	No. of Disputes	Workers involved	Loss of man-days		No. of Disputes	Workers involved	Loss of man-days
1933 ..	146	164,938	2,169,000	1939 ..	406	409,189	4,992,795
1934 ..	159	220,808	4,776,000	1940 ..	322	452,539	7,577,281
1935 ..	145	114,000	973,000	1941 ..	359	291,054	3,330,503
1936 ..	157	169,000	2,358,000	1942 ..	694	772,653	5,779,945
1937 ..	379	648,000	8,982,000	1943 ..	716	525,088	2,342,287
1938 ..	399	401,075	9,198,708	1944 ..	658	530,015	3,447,300

Workmen's Compensation in India

	<i>Total number of cases</i>	<i>Total compensations paid (Rs.)</i>		<i>Total number of cases</i>	<i>Total compensations paid (Rs.)</i>
1932	14,261	8,23,145	1937	29,645	12,88,764
1933	14,559	8,13,949	1938	35,965	14,32,723
1934	16,890	8,68,847	1940	41,015	19,38,968
1935	22,999	11,61,465	1941	38,980	15,83,382
1936	28,510	14,64,180	1942	31,089	14,08,035
			1943	44,826	22,83,991

Factory Employees in India

	<i>Average daily No. of persons employed</i>		<i>Average daily No. of persons employed</i>
1938	1,740,331	1941	2,156,377
1939	1,748,561	1942	2,282,237
1940	1,844,428	1943	2,436,312

INDIAN DEFENCE

Under the existing constitution, Defence is the responsibility of the Governor-General. The work connected with defence is divided between a civilian Defence Member and the Commander-in-Chief, who is designated War Member.

Central Command and Administration*The Commander-in-Chief and Defence Member*

Subject to the authority mentioned above the executive and administrative control of the Army in India is exercised by the Commander-in-Chief, who, as an extraordinary member of the Governor-General's Council, is in charge of the Defence Department of the Government of India. He is responsible for the formulation and execution of the defence policy of the Government of India, for maintaining every branch of the army in a state of efficiency, and for directing all military operations based on India. In addition, he administers, through the officers directly responsible for these services, the Royal Indian Navy and the Air Forces in India. He is assisted in carrying out this responsibilities by the Defence Department on the one hand and the Army Headquarters Staff on the other.

Main Characteristics of the Armed Forces in India

The army consists of the following forces:—(1) *Regular British Forces*, (2) *Regular Indian Forces*, (3) *Auxiliary Forces*, (4) *Territorial Forces*, (5) *Indian Army Reserve*, (6) *Indian State Forces* placed at the disposal of the Government of India.

Regular British Forces are composed of units of British Service. Since 1921, a proportion of Indian combatant ranks has been included in British Infantry Battalions.

The *Regular Indian Forces* are the Cavalry, Infantry and Pioneers, Signal Service, Medical Service, Army Service Corps and Mechanical Transport Service, etc.

Besides Regular Indian Forces, there exists an *Indian Army Reserve* consisting of Reserve of Indian Cavalry, Artillery, Sappers and Miners, Indian Signal Corps, Indian Infantry and Pioneers. The Indian Army Reserve also include the Reserve of Gurkha Groups, the Reserve of Indian Service Corps and Special Reserve of the Hazara Pioneers. Besides Indian Army Reserve there is an *Indian Supplementary Reserve* consisting of technical personnel needed to complete the effectives required for the Army on general mobilization.

The *Auxiliary Force* was established in 1920. Membership is limited to European British subjects, who are enrolled for local service within defined areas. The members are liable to be called out in support of the civil power and to be embodied in case of emergency.

Indian Territorial Force constituted by Indian Territorial Force Act, 1920 consists of four main categories: *Provincial battalions*. Men enroll in this battalion for a period of six years, the period being reduced to four years, in certain cases. *The University Training Corps* which are recruited from the staff and students of Indian Universities and are mainly educational and have no liability for service. Their purpose is educative and they have no liability to render actual military service; and *the Urban Units* which have a limited liability for service confined to the province in which they are located; and *medical branch*.

The Indian States Forces consist of military forces raised and maintained by the rulers of Indian States at their own expense and for State service. They consist of three classes for armament purpose: *Class A*—Troops are organised on the present-day Indian army system and establishments; *Class B*—little inferior in training and discipline to troops of Class A; *Class C*—mainly consists of militia formations which are not permanently embodied; it is generally lower in standard than B class troops.

The Defence Department

This Department deals with all army services proper and also the administration of the Royal Indian Navy and the Air Forces in India in so far as questions requiring the orders of the Government of India are concerned. The Department has no direct relations with commanders and troops or the staffs of formations subordinate to the Army Headquarters, but has continued intimate relations with the latter in all administrative matters. The army administration is represented in the Legislature by the Defence Member in the Council of State and the Defence Secretary in the Legislative Assembly. Defence Department is administered by a Secretary who like other secretaries has the constitutional right of access to the Viceroy.

The Army Headquarters

The A. H. Q. consists of the branches of the *General staff*, the *Adjutant General*, the *Quarter-master-General*, the *Master General of Ordnance*, the *Engineer-in-Chief* and the *Military Secretary*.

The duties of the branches are briefly as follows :—(a) The General Staff Branch is responsible for all works in connection with war operations proper, organizing and training the troops, the collection and distribution of military intelligence and the preparation of plans of operations. (b) Adjutant-General's Branch is responsible for recruiting organisation of army in peace, mobilization, medical services, honour and awards, provisions of personnel, military law and casualties, vocational training, spiritual welfare of troops. (c) The Quartermaster-General's Branch is responsible for accommodation, supplies, transportation, remounts, veterinary, farms, dairies, garrison and regimental institutes. (d) Master-General of Ordnance Branch is responsible for the administration and control of ordnance and clothing factories, arsenals and depots, also the manufacture, provision, issue etc. of military stores. (e) *Engineer-in-Chief's Branch*—Engineer operations and engineer services in peace and war. (f) *Military Secretary's Branch*—Executive duties connected with appointment, promotions and retirements of officers and the co-ordination of the selection of officers for staff appointments.

Staff officers are not vested with military command. They assist the Commander-in-Chief and are responsible for the administration of their respective departments, for conveying to subordinate commanders the executive decisions to be carried out.

Army Organisation

The normal army commands in India were primarily established for administrative reasons concerned with the raising, training and maintenance of various branches of the army in these geographical areas in India. Under the new scheme the army command has been divided like this—(1) N.-W. Army, (2) the Eastern Army and (3) the Southern Army.

The *Eastern Army* and the *Southern Army* are already organised on the operational basis of rear advanced headquarters, so that from static administrative organisations they have been changed into operational headquarters ready to move and strike whether necessary. The *North-Western Army* has been given the task of guarding all the approaches to India from the West and North.

The *Southern Army* is responsible for the Peninsula, and the *Eastern Army* takes over very much the same as the Eastern Command now covers, particularly, the North-Eastern land frontier including Bengal and Assam.

In addition to the above three commands, a large number of Districts including Delhi in the central part of the country have been amalgamated to form a separate command called *Central Command*. The Central Command acts as the main training ground for further army expansion, and source upon which other armies can draw for resources and reinforcements.

Towards Indianisation

Uptil 1918, the highest rank to which an Indian could rise was the Viceroy's Commission, which, however placed him below the latest joined

second-lieutenant. •It was only in 1918 that Indians were for the first time admitted to the commissioned ranks of the army.

The gradual process of Indianisation of the army has been very slow and halting. We give below the list of various committees, etc. that has helped its progress :—

1. *Shea Committee of 1921*—Was appointed to work out a scheme for the complete Indianisation of the officer rank of the Indian army by definite stages. The Committee submitted a scheme for complete Indianisation of the officer ranks in 42 years, which was however revised to 30 years in three stages.

2. *Skeen Committee of 1925*—The main recommendation of the Committee was (a) Establishment of a Military College in India on the lines of Sandhurst in 1933, (b) Abandonment of the Scheme of Indianisation as suggested by Shea Committee which segregated Indian officers, (c) 50 p.c. of total cadre of officers in Indian army to consist of Indians by 1952, (d) Indians to go to Sandhurst for training at the rate of 20 a year, (e) Selection not to be confined to so-called martial classes.

3. *Defence Sub-Committee of the Round Table Conference 1931*—No decision was taken by R. T. C. as to the rate of Indian recruitment. It was however conceded that an Indian Sandhurst in which military training in all arms would be given, should be established and the Government would be asked to appoint an expert committee for this purpose.

4. *Chetwode Committee of 1931*—was appointed under the recommendation of the Defence Sub-Committee. But Chairman of the Committee Sir Philip Chetwode ruled that the task of the Committee was to draw up a scheme for a military college only and it was not concerned with the rate of Indianisation or classes of composition of the ranks of the army. A Military Academy was established at Dehra Dun in 1932.

5. Further progress at the outbreak of war in 1939 :—

(a) Difference between martial and non-martial races disappeared and recruitment was not confined to the North.

(b) Indian Commissioned Officers increased to 8,000.

Chatfield Committee's Report

In September, 1938, an announcement was made on behalf of the British Government for early action to place the defence organization of India on a more satisfactory footing and an expert body known as the Chatfield Committee was appointed.

The recommendations of the Committee were issued in 1939 :—

The basis of distribution of the Army in India will be : (a) Frontier defence ; (b) internal security ; (c) coast defence ; (d) general reserve ; (e) external defence troops.

Types of modernized units will be as follows :—British and Indian Cavalry light tank regiments, equipped with light tanks and armoured cars for reconnaissance.

Indian Cavalry armoured regiments, equipped with light tanks and armoured cars. Indian Cavalry motor regiments, provided with motor transport for conveyance of personnel who will normally move on foot.

British and Indian Field Artillery regiments—all regiments are to be mechanized and in due course equipped with powder guns.

Sappers and Miners Units—provided with mechanized first-line transport and mechanical power tools.

British and Indian Infantry Battalions—armed with rifles, Bren guns, and two mortars, and fully mechanized first-line transport.

Units on the North-West Frontier will, however, retain a certain proportion of pack mules.

The Air Forces in India will be re-equipped with modern aircraft.

The Royal Indian Navy—The following new vessels will be ordered for the Royal Indian Navy:—(a) Four 'Bitten' class escort vessels; (b) four 'Mastiff' class trawlers. The sloops 'Indus' and 'Hindustan' will be re-equipped with new armament.

The existing ordnance factories will be expanded and reconstructed. Where necessary, entirely new factories will be built.

The capital cost of the above changes will be about Rs. 45 crores. Of the total amount of Rs. 45 crores three-quarters will be provided as a free gift by Br. Government while one-quarter will be advanced as a loan, the interest on which will be entirely remitted for the first five years. In addition, the committee recommended and the British Government agreed that the annual grant made by the latter should be continued at the rate of two million pounds a year, at which it has been provisionally fixed.

Further Indianisation of Army

Sir Claude Auchinleck, the Commander-in-Chief of India announced on 22nd October 1945 the Government of India's plans for complete Indianisation of India's armed Forces—

(1) Grant of permanent commissions in R. I. N. and Indian Army would in future be restricted to Indians and other persons domiciled in India i.e. either British subjects or subjects of Indian Princes, the recruitment of R. I. A. F. being already subject to this restriction.

(2) In order to meet immediate need, 40 regular commissions would be offered to European officers of R. I. N. Reserve.

(3) As three services would still require a quota of British officers, in view of the inadequate supply of qualified Indian officers, British officers would, apart from the above 40, in future be obtained by seconding or attachment from R. N.; British Army and R. A. F.

(4) Position of regular British officers already holding permanent commissions would not be affected.

Royal Indian Navy

The origins of India's Naval Forces go back as far as 1612, when East India Company established armed vessels to protect their commerce from

the Dutch, the Portuguese and pirates. Since then under varying titles a Naval Force has always been maintained in India. From 1892 it was known as *Royal Indian Marine*; on October 2, 1934, Old Royal Indian Marine was reorganised and finally inaugurated as *Royal Indian Navy*. The discipline of the Royal Indian Navy is maintained by Indian Navy (Discipline) Act, 1934.

The Service is commanded by a flag officer of the Royal Navy with a commodore R. I. N. as second in command, who is also Chief of Staff.

Naval ratings in peacetime enters the service as boys and are trained on the hulk of I.M.S. *Dalhousie*. Early in 1940 a new land establishment for training of boys was set up at Manora.

Air Forces in India

The Air Forces in India are controlled by the Commander-in-Chief in India as part of the defence services of the Indian Empire. The Commander of the Air Forces in an Air Marshal whose rank corresponds to that of a Lieut. General in the Army. The Air Officer Commanding, has a headquarters staff constituted of six branches, namely, air staff, personnel, technical, stores, medical and chief engineer.

The Indian Air Force came into existence in 1933 with one flight only designed for army co-operation. By the end of 1939 the Indian Air Force increased from its original flight to a full squadron of aircraft with a strength of over 200 officers and men. The Government of India announced in 1945 that the pre-war strength of the Royal Indian Air Force was one squadron only. The force has been steadily expanding during the war. It is their intention to maintain the R.I.A.F. at an initial strength of not less than 10 squadrons plus the necessary training and other auxiliary units required to provide a fully balanced Force. The training of cadets is undertaken in India at the School of Air Force Technical Training at Ambala, started in November, 1939.

Early in 1943 *Indian Air Training Corps* was inaugurated and is now functioning almost in all universities for preparing and training for a career in the flying branch of I.A.F., while they are at their regular studies.

Officers

There are three main categories of officers in the Indian Army:—those holding the *King's Commission*, those holding *Indian Commissions* and those holding the *Viceroy's Commission*.

King's Commissioned officers for the Indian Army are recruited in peace time from two main sources from among the cadets who pass through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst or Military College, Woolwich, and by the transfer to the Indian Army of officers belonging to British units. A third source is from among university candidates. The promotion in rank of King's Commissioned officers of the Indian Army is regulated by a time-scale up to the rank of Lieut-Colonel but is subject to certain professional tests and examinations.

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Since the 1st World War, Indians have been held eligible to the King's Commission. King's Commission may be obtained by Indians in peace time in three ways : (1) by qualifying as a cadet through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst or the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich ; (2) by the selection of specially capable and deserving Indian officers or non-commissioned officers of Indian Regiments promoted from the ranks of those appointed direct, as jamadar. These receive their commission after training at the Royal Military College or Academy ; (3) by the bestowal of honorary King's Commissions on Indian officers who have rendered distinguished service. A further measure adopted was the establishment of the *Prince of Wales Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun* for preliminary education of Indians for commissions in the Army.

Viceroy's Commissions are held by Indians and have restricted status and power of command.

Defence Expenditure

Crores of Rs.

Crores of Rs.

1938-39	..	46.18	1942-43	..	214.62
1939-40	..	49.54	1943-44	..	358.40
1940-41	..	73.61	1944-45 (Revised)	..	397.23
1941-42	..	103.93			

MOTION PICTURES

There are, at present, more than 50 studios in operation throughout India, with more than 150 films producing companies participating. Investment in studio buildings and equipments runs to about Rs. 10,000,000 and expenditure on production and distribution about three times that figure, i.e., 30,000,000. An average of 4,000 artistes and technical personnel are employed on sales, distribution and incidental activities. And the industry is a very good customer. In the last year before the war it imported nearly 83 million feet of raw film and nearly a million rupees worth of equipment. Over half of the raw film came from the United Kingdom but most of the equipment from the United States.

The two greatest defects to the growth of Indian films are : (1) lack of co-ordination among producers, (2) language difficulty ; for language in India change every four hundred miles except perhaps in the case of Hindustani. It is estimated that cost of production of an average film was Rs. 80,000. Film industry in India now occupies eighth place among industries of India. There are four films censorship Boards in India at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Punjab.

To effect economy in use of raw films the Government of India have by notification entitled *Cinematograph Films (footage control) Order 1943* dated July 17, restricted a total length of picture to 14,500 ft. The length will include a feature film not exceeding 11,000 ft. and one or more 'war effort' pictures, the total length of which is not less than 2,000 ft.

Among the provinces, Bombay leads in film production. In 1943 Bombay produced 99 pictures, Bengal 27, South India 20 and Punjab 3.

The industry is now under the following taxations—(1) Import duty or raw films and production and projection machinery, (2) Terminal or Octroi tax by most district municipalities, (3) Government Electricity duty, (4) Entertainment tax, (5) Income tax, super tax and excess profits tax.

For publicity purposes, Government of India have started on July 6, 1940, the *Information Films of India*. It was made compulsory for cinema houses in India to show the films prepared by the Information Films of India from September 15, 1943. The cost of production for 1943 was Rs. 4,85,000 and Rs. 6,87,000 for 1945. The average number of copies printed of each film was 46.

Language of Indian Feature Films

The following Table gives an analysis of Indian feature films according to languages :—

	1941	1942	1943
Tamil	30	21	11
Telegu	13	10	4
Kanarese	2	2	4
Malayalam	1
Bengali	20	15	20
Punjabi	8	3	3
Sindhi	1	..
Marwari	1	1
Gujrati	1
Marhati	10	13	7
Urdu
English	1	..	1
Arabic
Hindi	51	99	98
Total	137	165	149

Import of Films

	Raw films (foot)	Value (Rs.)	Import duty (Rs.)
1937-38	74,235,103	25,44,444	14,89,382
1938-39	73,855,853	24,99,188	13,09,356
1939-40	83,000,000	31,00,000	14,79,000
1940-41	70,000,000
1941-42	93,000,000

	Exposed Films	Value Rs.		Exposed Films	Value Rs.
1935-36	8,820,508	25,80,421	1938-39	26,034,479	37,69,305
1936-37	9,407,588	24,89,887	1939-40	24,000,000	54,00,000
1937-38	22,278,338	38,14,728			

Country of Origin of Feature Films

The following Table gives the country of origin of feature films exhibited in India for the year 1935 to 1940 :—

Year	India	America	Britain	Other countries
1935	247	308	85	4
1936	229	314	83	2
1937	180	312	80	3
1938	78	220	55	2
1939	146	178	39	9
1940	162	178	22	1
1941	137	167	33	..
1942	165	167	22	2
1943	183	180	30	2

Landmarks of Cinema in India

- 1907 First cinema house for showing foreign pictures was opened in Calcutta by late J. F. Madan.
- 1913 D. Falke of Bombay is the first Indian to lay foundation of film industry by producing mythological play *Harishchandra* measuring 3,700 ft. which was released at Coronation Cinema, Bombay April, 1913.
- 1917 First Indian film produced in Bengal is *Nala Damayanti* by Madan Theatres started by late J. F. Madan.
- 1931 *Alam Ara* is the first Indian talkie produced at Imperial Studio, Bombay. It was released on 14th March, 1931. The second talkie was *Shirin Farhad* produced by Madan Theatres, Ltd., Calcutta.
- 1931 Prabhat Studio's *Sairendhri* is the first Indian colour film though it was coloured in Germany. First cine-colour picture done in India was Imperial's *Kishan Kanya*.
- Karma* is the first Indian English film (talkie) by the late Himansu Rai, the founder of Bombay Talkies but produced mainly in England under European supervision.
- 1939 Silver Jubilee of the Film Industry in India celebrated by holding a Congress and Exhibition in Bombay.
- 1940 *Court Dancer* is the first full length sound Indian English film made in this country under purely Indian supervision.
- Two-thirds of the total annual Indian film production comes from Bombay studios.

It occupies 8th place among the industries of India.

1943-44 Statistics (from the Reports of the Indian Motion Picture Producers Association)

Gross Returns	..	Rs. 9,93,45,100
Net Income	..	" 2,53,33,000
No. of permanent Indian Cinema Theatre	..	1,700

Leading Indian Studios

<i>Bombay—</i>	Ranjit Movietone Co.	<i>Lahore—</i>
Rajkamal Kalamandir	Atre Pictures	Pancholi Art Picture
Bombay Talkies	<i>Calcutta—</i>	<i>Poona—</i>
Minerva Movietone	Bharat Luxmi Pictures	Prabhat Film Co.
Central Studios	Indra Movietone	Saraswati Cinetone
Famous Cine Laboratory	New Theatres	<i>Madras—</i>
Prakash Pictures	East India Film	Bharat Movietone
	Kali Films	Jaya Films

Leading Foreign Producers

Universal (U.S.A.)	Warner Bros. (U.S.A.)	20th Century Fox
Metro-Goldwyn-Meyer	Br. Lion Film Corpn.	(U.S.A.)
(U.S.A.)	(Eng.)	Columbia (U.S.A.)
R. K. O. Radio Pictures	Gainsborough Pictures	United Artists (U.S.A.)
(U.S.A.)	(Eng.)	

Moton Picture Statistics

Throughout the world in 1940, 230,000,000 people attended motion picture theatres weekly; in U. S. A. average admission price is 24 cents. There are 69,153 motion picture theatres (1939) throughout the world, of which U. S. A. has 19,645, Europe 35,694, Far East 6,568, Latin America 5,403, Canada 1,246, Africa and Near East 968. In U. S. A. there is one motion picture theatre seat for every 12 inhabitants and one theatre for every 8,000.

Some Notable Features

70% of world's films are made in U. S. A.

In peace-time Hollywood produced annually more than 500 full length feature pictures and more than 700 short films.

Average American weekly attendance is 75,000,000.

The notable cinema salaries per year in 1943 were earned by Fred Mac Murray (£105,000), Bob Hope (£61,000), Bing Crosby (£73,000), Bette Davis (£60,000), Garry Cooper (£47,000).

There are over 20,000 motion picture theatres throughout U. S. A. Radio City Music Hall in New York has 6,200 seats.

CENSUS OF INDIA

Change of Methods—There were changes in methods in census operations in 1941 than previous countings, such as (1) the abolition of old one-night theory of enumeration, (2) abolition of the old schedule and the conducting of enumeration straight on the slip which was later sorted to produce the various tables, (3) enormous operations carried out by people as civic duty.

Rate of Increase—India's population has increased by 50 millions in the past ten years. The previous ratio of three to one between population of British India and States is maintained. The 1931 census recorded an increase in population of about $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. while the 1941 census shows an increase of 15.1 per cent. and in the States and Agencies 14.3 per cent. The rate of increase has not however been remarkably rapid in comparison with that of certain other countries. The increase from 1872 to 1931 was 30 p.c. In England and Wales during the same period the increase was 77 p.c. In France it was considerably lower, while in U. S. A. it was more rapid than England.

Urbanisation of India—The 1941 census reveals two remarkable changes in Indian social life—urbanisation of modern India and the rapid growth of principal industrial centres. The pace of urbanisation has been particularly rapid in recent years as evident from the fact that the number of cities with one lakh or more population increased from 35 to 58 and the aggregate population of these cities rose from 9 millions to $16\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The reason for the shift of population (1) *industrialisation*, (2) *attractiveness of city life*, (3) *availability of best education only in towns*.

Sex Disparity—The sex disparity against the females are becoming prominent in every census and it is true of all communities. In the case of only two Provinces, Madras and Orissa, is there anything like numerical equality of the sexes; in all provinces the deficiency of women is striking. The sex disparity is more prominent in Punjab, N. W. F. P. and Bombay.

Classification under 'Communities' and not under 'Religion'—The important departure in 1941 from previous census is that classification of *communities* has been adopted instead of old classification of religion. So the figures for tribes include many different peoples, no matter what their individual religion may be. This sort of new classification has done a great injustice to the Hindus; for '*tribes*' mainly consist of followers of Hindu religion with only a sprinkling of Christians. Thus Hindu classification has lost a substantial numerical strength. On the other hand, the Hindus has been deliberately divided into Scheduled casts and others in the community table.

Proportion of Population—Regarding community, the census reveals that of 100 Indians 66 are Hindus, 24 Muslims, 6 of tribal origin. Persons of European origin are 135,000, that is, one in every 3,000.

Literacy—The total literates of India in 1941 were 47,398,000 as against 23,485,227 in 1931. Of the literates, 36,913,000 are males and 9,230,000 are

females. Travancore takes the highest place in India, the figures being 47·8 per cent., Cochin comes next with 35·4 per cent., Delhi 25·7, Baroda 23·01 and of the British Indian Provinces Bombay heads the list with 19·5 per cent. of the entire population, followed by Bengal with 16·1 per cent.

Population

	Millions	Increase p.c. since previous census		Millions	Increase p.c. since previous
1872	.. 203	8·0	1911	.. 308	6·7
1881	.. 250	23·2	1921	.. 306	1·0
1891	.. 279	11·6	1931	.. 338	10·6
1901	.. 284	1·8	1941	.. 389	15·1

Area & Population

	Area (sq. miles)			Population (000)	
	Br. India	Ind. States		Br. India	Ind. States
1921	.. 857,370	711,032	1921	.. 233,708	71,939
1931	.. 859,456	712,508	1931	.. 256,778	81,311
1941	.. 865,446	715,964	1941	.. 295,808	93,189

Distribution according to Religion (000)

	British India			Indian States		
	1921	1931	1941	1921	1931	1941
Hindus ..	162,647	177,148	190,811	53,590	61,467	64,120
Muslims	58,894	66,386	79,399	9,291	10,657	12,660
Christians	2,766	3,531	3,482	1,726	2,430	2,834
Sikhs ..	2,361	3,209	4,165	872	1,115	1,526
Jains ..	454	453	578	723	799	871
Buddhists	286	342	167	80	94	65
Parsis ..	88	96	102	13	13	13

Distribution between Town & Village (000)

	Br. India			Ind. States	
Urban	Br. India	Ind. States	Rural	Br. India	Ind. States
1921	.. 23,697	7,431	1921	.. 210,011	64,508
1931	.. 28,087	9,327	1931	.. 228,691	71,984
1941	.. 37,547	12,149	1941	.. 258,262	81,040

Literacy

	No. of literates in Br. India	No. of literates in Ind. States	No. of literates per 10,000 in Br. India	Ind. States per 10,000 in No. of literates
1921	.. 14,998	3,969	642	552
1931	.. 18,072	5,408	704	656
1941	.. 37,016	10,306	1,251	1,108

Muslim population where muslims are in majority

	<i>Muslims</i>	<i>Non-Muslims</i>	<i>Total</i>
Punjab	16,217,000	12,202,000	28,419,000
Bengal	33,005,000	27,303,000	60,307,000
Sind	3,208,000	1,227,000	4,535,000
N. W. F. P. ..	2,789,000	249,000	3,038,000

**Density of Population
per sq. mile**

<i>Br. India & Ind. States</i> ..	246	<i>N. W. F. P.</i> ..	213
<i>British India</i> ..	341	<i>Assam</i> ..	186
<i>Bengal</i> ..	779	<i>C. P. & Berar</i> ..	170
<i>Bihar</i> ..	521	<i>Sind</i> ..	94
<i>U. P.</i> ..	518	<i>Beluchistan</i> ..	9
<i>Madras</i> ..	491	<i>States</i>	
<i>Punjab</i> ..	287	<i>Cochin</i> ..	952
<i>Bombay</i> ..	272	<i>Travancore</i> ..	792
<i>Orissa</i> ..	271	<i>Baroda</i> ..	345

Distribution according to Communities

	1941	1931
Hindus	254,931,000	238,623,000
Muslims	92,058,000	77,050,000
*Tribes	25,441,000	7,630,000
Christians	6,317,000	5,963,000
Buddhists	233,000	439,000
Others	7,688,000	4,126,000

* of the Tribal community it is estimated that about 8 millions profess Tribal religions, while approximately one million may be regarded as Christians and about 16 millions as adherents to some form of the Hindu faith.

Distribution According to Sex (000)

			<i>Br. India</i>	<i>Ind. States</i>
1921 (Males) ..	120,056	37,123	1921 (Females) 113,652	34,816
1931 " ..	132,389	41,897	1931 " 124,389	39,414
1941 " ..	153,020	48,006	1941 " 142,789	45,184

P. C. of Increase of Population in Br. India

	1931 to 41		1931 to 41
Madras	11.6	<i>C. P.</i> ..	9.8
Bombay	15.8	<i>Assam</i> ..	18.3
Bengal	20.3	<i>Orissa</i> ..	8.8
U. P.	20.5	<i>N. W. F. P.</i> ..	25.3
Punjab	20.5	<i>Sind</i> ..	16.7
Bihar	12.3	<i>Baluchistan</i> ..	8.2

1. MADRAS, 1941

Area (in sq. miles)	127,768	Rural Population	41,879,082
Towns	420	Urban	7,961,482
Villages	35,932	Males	24,800,309
Population	49,840,564	Females	24,040,255

Population by Communities

<i>Hindus</i>			
Scheduled Castes	8,152,226	Sikhs	423
Others	35,095,198	Jains	30,157
<i>Muslims</i>	3,926,715	Parsis	369
<i>Christians</i>		Buddhists	1,073
Indian Christians	2,021,888	Jews	191
Anglo-Indians	28,697	Tribes	562,037
Others	17,547	Others	4,043

2. ORISSA, 1941

Area (sq. miles)	57,392	Urban Population	412,528
Towns	29	Rural	12,957,289
Villages	44,248	Males	6,509,207
Population	13,369,817	Females	6,860,610

3. NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE, 1941

Area (sq. miles)	39,249	Urban Population	552,193
Towns	28	Rural	4,863,473
Villages	2,826	Males	2,907,920
Population	5,415,666	Females	2,507,740

4. COORG, 1941

Area (sq. miles)	1,593	Urban	11,218
Towns	2	Rural	157,508
Villages	301	Males	92,347
Population	168,726	Females	76,379

Communities

<i>Hindus</i>		<i>Christians</i>	
Scheduled Castes	25,740	Indian Christians	3,309
Others	105,013	Anglo-Indians	80
<i>Muslims</i>	14,730	Others	52
Buddhists	33	Jains	34
Tribes	19,723	Parsis	12

5. BALUCHISTAN

Area (sq. miles)	134,002	Population	857,837
Towns	17	Urban	114,060
Villages	3,826	Rural	743,775

Communities*Hindus*

Scheduled Castes	..	5,167
Others	..	49,227
Muslims	..	785,181
Sikhs	..	12,044
Others	..	160

Christians

Indian Christians	..	2,673
Anglo-Indians	..	263
Others	..	3,120

6. PUNJAB, 1941

Area (sq. miles)	..	138,105	Urban Population	..	5,040,711
Towns	..	283	Rural	..	29,269,090
Villages	..	52,047	Males	..	18,581,336
Population	..	34,309,861	Females	..	15,728,525

Population by Communities*Hindus*

Scheduled Castes	..	1,772,572
Others	..	8,214,114
Adi-Dharmis	..	349,863
Muslims	..	18,259,744

Christians

Ind. Christians	..	493,081
Anglo-Indians	..	6,043
Others	..	13,342

Sikhs	..	5,116,185
Jains	..	45,475
Parsis	..	4,359
Buddhists	..	854
Jews	..	39
Others	..	34,190

7. UNITED PROVINCES, 1941

Area (sq. miles)	..	112,523	Urban Population	..	6,999,436
Towns	..	456	Rural	..	49,347,020
Villages	..	105,778	Males	..	29,542,475
Population	..	56,346,456	Females	..	26,803,981

Population*Hindus*

Scheduled Castes	..	11,931,320
Others	..	34,922,858
Muslims	..	8,691,878

Christians

Indian Christians	..	134,613
Anglo-Indians	..	13,390
Others	..	15,163

Sikhs	..	233,200
Jains	..	103,029
Parsis	..	1,370
Buddhists	..	5,492
Jews	..	80
Tribes	..	292,826
Others	..	1,231

8. BENGAL, 1941

Area (sq. miles)	..	82,876	Urban Population	..	5,983,290
Towns	..	156	Rural	..	55,477,087
Villages	..	90,000	Males	..	32,360,401
Occupied houses	..	11,355,854	Females	..	29,099,976
*Population	..	61,460,377			

* Br. Territory—60,306,525.

Communities

<i>Hindus</i>		<i>Parsis</i>	2,519
Scheduled Castes	7,597,404	<i>Buddhists</i>	154,285
Castes not given	6,942,743	<i>Jews</i>	2,781
Others	11,261,577	<i>Others</i>	6,905
<i>Muslims</i>	33,371,688	<i>Tribes</i>	1,925,457
<i>Christians</i>		<i>P.C. of Population</i>	
Indian Christians	111,426	<i>Hindus</i>	42.0
Anglo-Indians	31,620	<i>Muslims</i>	54.3
Other Christians	23,980	<i>Christians</i>	0.3
<i>Sikhs</i>	16,284	<i>Tribes</i>	0.3
<i>Jains</i>	11,708	<i>Others</i>	0.3

Arya Samajists total—68,030 ; *Brahmos* total—2,060 ; *British-born Europeans* total—18,893.

Calcutta

1891	744,249	1921	1,046,300
1901	921,380	1931	1,163,771
1911	1,013,143	1941	2,108,891

Calcutta Statistics

Calcutta District (sq. m.)	33.70	<i>Muslims</i>	497,535
Density in sq. mile	62,578	<i>Indian Christians</i>	16,431
Occupied houses	376,158	<i>Jains</i>	6,689
Persons	21,108,891	<i>Sikhs</i>	8,456
Males	1,452,362	<i>Others</i>	48,268
Females	656,529	<i>Variation 1931 to 1941</i>	+81.2
<i>Hindus</i>	1,531,512	<i>Do. 1921 to 1931</i>	+11.7

9. BOMBAY, 1941

Area (sq. miles)	132,700	<i>Urban</i>	7,205,826
Towns	332	<i>Rural</i>	22,792,300
Villages	36,247	<i>Males</i>	15,456,220
Occupied houses	6,400,759	<i>Females</i>	14,541,906
Population	29,998,126		

Communities

<i>Hindus</i>		<i>Buddhists</i>	1,456
Scheduled Castes	2,575,239	<i>Jews</i>	15,419
Other Hindus	21,303,917	<i>Tribes</i>	2,267,079
<i>Muslims</i>	2,760,844	<i>Others</i>	7,977
<i>Parsis</i>	88,169		

P.C. of Communities

<i>Christians</i>		<i>Scheduled Castes</i>	8.9
Indian Christians	363,368	<i>Other Hindus</i>	70.5
Anglo-Indians	14,280	<i>Muslims</i>	9.2
Others	23,081	<i>Tribes</i>	7.7
<i>Sikhs</i>	8,454		
<i>Jains</i>	568,793		

10. CENTRAL PROVINCES & BERAR

Area (in sq. miles)	118,710	Urban	2,188,905
Towns	130	Rural	16,416,141
Villages	44,992	Males	9,313,794
Persons	18,605,946	Females	9,292,152

Communities

Hindus

Scheduled Castes	3,265,453	<i>Sikhs</i>	15,283
Others	10,667,124	<i>Jains</i>	86,254
<i>Muslims</i>	797,772	<i>Parsis</i>	2,029
<i>Indian Christians</i>	52,133	<i>Buddhists</i>	79
<i>Anglo-Indians</i>	4,824	<i>Jews</i>	287
<i>Others</i>	5,819	<i>Tribes</i>	3,708,892

N.B.—Population etc. of all provinces includes States and Agencies within their respective territories.

SPORTS SECTION

INDIAN CRICKET

Vernon's Team—First English team visited India in the year 1888-89. It was captained by famous Middlesex cricketer, C. F. Vernon. Twelve matches were played, of which they won ten, lost one and drew one.

Lord Hawke's Team—Lord Hawke, the famous English cricketer brought out another English team in the year 1893. The team played 23 matches in India, of which they won 15, lost two and drew six.

Oxford University Authentics—This English team visited India in the year 1902-3. They played 19 matches, of which they won 12, lost two and drew five.

Other Visits—The first M. C. C. team to tour India under the leadership of Arthur Gilligan in 1926-27 played 34 matches, of which 11 were won, none lost and 23 drawn.

D. R. Jardine's team in 1933-34, played 34, won 17, drew 16 and lost one.

The unofficial Australian side in 1935-36, skippered by J. S. Ryder, won 11 out of 23 games, lost three, and shared honours in nine games.

In 1937-38 Lord Tennyson's team, played 24, won eight, lost five and drew 11.

Parsi team visited England in 1886 and 1888 and in 1911 H. H. The Maharaja of Patiala took a First Indian Team to England which gained much experience in English Cricket. Altogether 23 games were played, of which they won six, lost fifteen and drew two.

1st All-India Team—1932—The first official Indian team visited England in 1932 under the captaincy of the Maharaja of Porbandar. In the only test match at Lords, All-India team was defeated by 158 runs. Out of 26 First Class engagements Indian team won nine, lost eight and drew nine. Outside these, they played 27 other games and in all matches they won 13, lost none and drew 14 while two were abandoned without a ball being bowled.

2nd All-India Team 1936—This All-India team was captained by Maharajkumar of Vizianagram. Playing 28 First Class matches, India won only four matches.

Record of Test Matches : England v. India

		Won	Drawn	Winner
1 (1932) 1	..	England
3 (1933-34) 2	1	England
3 (1936) 2	1	England

Test Match Centuries—For England :—Valentine 136 (1933-34), C. F. Walters 102 (1933-34), Hammond 167 (1936), Hammond 217 (1936), Worthington 128 (1936).

For India—Amarnath 118 (1933-34), V. M. Merchant 114 (1936), Mustaq Ali 112 (1936).

Highest Totals for an Innings

By England		By India	
571 (8 wkts.)	Manchester 1936	390 (5 wkts.)	Manchester 1936
471 (8 wkts.)	Oval .. 1936	312	Oval .. 1936
438	Bombay .. 1933-34		

Lowest Totals for an Innings

By England		By India	
134	Lords .. 1936	93	Lords .. 1936

Quadrangular Cricket (Bombay)

1912 Parsis ; 1913 Drawn ; 1914 Abandoned ; 1915 European ; 1916 Abandoned ; 1917 Drawn ; 1918 Europeans ; 1919 Hindus ; 1920 Drawn ; 1921 Europeans ; 1922 Parsis ; 1923 Hindus ; 1924 Mahomedans ; 1925 Hindus ; 1926 Hindus ; 1927 Europeans ; 1928 Parsis ; 1929 Hindus ; 1930-33 Not played ; 1934 Mahomedans ; 1935 Mahomedans ; 1936 Hindus.

Pentangular Cricket (Bombay)

1937 Muslims ; 1938 Muslims ; 1939 Hindus ; 1940 Muslims ; 1941 Hindus ; 1942 No play ; 1943 Hindus ; 1944 Muslims ; 1945 Hindus.

Pentangular Records

- | | |
|--|--|
| 560 runs by the Hindus (7 wkts.) against the Rest in 1938. | 221 runs by V. M. Merchant against Parsis, 1941. |
| 241 runs by L. Amarnath against Rest, 1938. | 248 runs by V. S. Hazare (Rest) against Muslims, 1943. |
| 64 (smallest total) Europeans against Muslims, 1937. | 250 (not out) runs by V. M. Merchant against The Rest, 1943. |
| 591 runs by Hindus against Europeans in 1939. | 215 R. S. Modi (Parsis) against Europeans, 1944. |
| 309 runs by V. S. Hazare (Rest) against Hindus in 1943. | 221 (not out) V. M. Merchant (Hindu) against Parsis, 1944. |
| 243 runs by V. M. Merchant against Muslims, 1941. | |

CRICKET CHAMPIONSHIP OF INDIA**Winners of Ranji Trophy**

[*Ranji Trophy*—A gold cup presented by the Maharaja of Patiala in memory of the famous batsman, Prince Ranjitsinji.]

1934-35 Bombay; 1935-36 Bombay; 1936-37 Nawanagar State; 1937-38 Hyderabad; 1938-39 Bengal; 1939-40 Maharashtra; 1940-41 Maharashtra; 1941-42 Bombay; 1942-43 Baroda; 1943-44 Western India States; 1944-45 Bombay; 1945-46 Holkar.

Ranji Trophy Records

- | | |
|--|--|
| 735 runs by Bombay against Maharashtra (1944). | 912 runs by Holkar against Mysore (1945-46) for 8 wickets. |
| 650 runs for 9 wickets by Maharashtra against Baroda (1940). | <i>Highest individual centuries in one innings</i> —Six centuries by Holkar against Mysore (1945-46)—It is a world record. |
| 540 runs by Maharashtra against Western India, 1940. | <i>Highest aggregate in one innings</i> —1,325 runs by Maharashtra v. Bombay at Poona in 1941-42. |
| 640 runs for 3 wickets by Maharashtra against Western India States (1941). | <i>Lowest Victory</i> — |
| 798 runs by Maharashtra against Northern India. | By one run, Bengal v. Bihar (1941-42). |
| 613 runs by Northern India (7 wickets) against N. W. F. P. (1941-42). | <i>Smallest Totals</i> — |
| 764 runs by Bombay against Holkar (1944-45). | 23 runs Sind v. Punjab (1938-39). |

Highest individual runs in Ranji Trophy

- *359—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against Maharashtra (1943-44).
(Highest individual score).
- 313—V. S. Hazare (Maharashtra) against Baroda (1939-40).
- 246—Prof. D. B. Deodhar (Maharashtra) against Bombay (1940-41).
- *222—Capt. Wazir Ali (S. Punjab) against Bengal (1938-39).
- *218—S. W. Sohoni (Maharashtra) against W. I. States (1940-41).
- *209—Ram Prakash (N. India) against Maharashtra (1940-41).
- 203—J. Naomal (Sind) against Nawanagar (1938-39).
- 202—Rangnekar (Bombay) against Maharashtra (1940-41).
- *230—K. C. Ibrahim (Bom.) against N. I. States (1941-42).
- 245—R. S. Modi (Bom.) against Baroda (1944-45).
- *234—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against Sind (1945-46).
- 200—C. K. Naidu (Holkar) against Baroda (1945-46).

* Indicates not out.

ROHINTON BARIA INTER-UNIVERSITY CRICKET

[Gold cup presented by Mr. A. D. Baria of Bombay to perpetuate the memory of his son, Rohinton Baria who died at an early age.]

1935-36 Punjab University; 1936-37 Punjab University; 1937-38 Punjab University (walk-over); 1938-39 Bombay University; 1930-40 Bombay University; 1940-41 Bombay University; 1941-42 Bombay University; 1942-43 Bombay University; 1943-44 Bombay University; 1944-45 Bombay University.

FOOTBALL**I. F. A. Shield**

1893 Royal Irish; 1894 Royal Irish; 1895 Royal Welsh Fusiliers; 1896 Calcutta; 1897 Dalhousie; 1898 Gloucester Regt.; 1899 South Lancashire; 1900 Calcutta; 1901 Royal Irish Rifles; 1902 93rd Highlanders; 1903 Calcutta; 1904 Calcutta; 1905 Dalhousie; 1906 Calcutta; 1907 Highland Light Infantry; 1908 Gordons; 1909 Gordons; 1910 Gordons; 1911 Mohan Bagan; 1912 Royal Irish Rifles; 1913 Royal Irish Rifles; 1914 King's Own Regt.; 1915 Calcutta; 1916 2nd North Staffords; 1917 10th Middlesex; 1918 Training Resv. Bn. No. 7; 1919 1st Bn. Brecknockshire (S. W. B.); 1920 1st Bn. Black Watch; 1921 3rd Bn. Worcestershire Regiment; 1922 Calcutta; 1923 Calcutta; 1924 Calcutta; 1925 2nd Bn. R. Scots Fusiliers; 1926 2nd Bn. S. Foresters; 1927 2nd Bn. S. Foresters; 1928 2nd Bn. S. Foresters; 1929 Ulster Rifles; 1930 2nd Bn. S. Highlanders; 1931 2nd Bn. H. L. I.; 1932 2nd Bn. Essex Regt.; 1933 D. C. L. I.; 1934 *Game abandoned*; 1935 East Yorks; 1936 Mahomedan Sp.; 1937 6th Field Brigade; 1938 East Yorks; 1939 Police; 1940 Aryans; 1941 Mahomedan Sp.; 1942 Mahomedan Sp. 1943 East Bengal; 1944 B. & A. Rly.; 1945 East Bengal.

Durand Tournament

1888 Royal Scots; 1889 H. L. I.; 1890 H. L. I.; 1891 Scottish Borderers; 1892 Scottish Borderers; 1893 H. L. I.; 1894 H. L. I.; 1895 H. L. I.;

1896 Somerset L. I.; 1897 Black Watch; 1898 Black Watch; 1899 Black Watch; 1900 S. W. Borderers; 1901 S. W. Borderers; 1902 Hampshire Regt.; 1903 R. Irish Rifles; 1904 N. Staffordshire; 1905 Royal Dragoons; 1906 Cameronians; 1907 Cameronians; 1908 Lanc. Fusiliers; 1909 Lanc. Fusiliers; 1910 Royal Scots; 1911 Black Watch; 1912 Royal Scots; 1913 Lanc. Fusiliers; 1914-19 No match; 1920 Black Watch; 1921 3rd Worcesters; 1922 Lanc. Fusiliers; 1923 Cheshire; 1924 1st Worcesters; 1925 Sherwood Foresters; 1926 Durhams; 1927 York & Lancaster; 1928 Sherwood Foresters; 1929 York & Lancaster; 1930 York & Lancaster; 1931 Devonshire Regt.; 1933 King's Shropshires; 1934 'B' Corps Signals; 1935 2nd Border Regt.; 1936 Argyll & Southerland Highlanders; 1937 2nd Bn. Border Regiment; 1938 S. Wales Borders; 1939 No play; 1940 Mahomedan Sp.; 1941-45 No play.

Rovers Cup, Bombay

1891-92 1st Bn. Worcester Regt.; 1893 2nd Bn. Lancs. Fusiliers; 1894 1st Bn. Royal Scots; 1895 2nd Bn. Royal Scots; 1896 Durham L. I.; 1897 Middlesex Regt.; 1898 Highland L. L.; 1899 R. Irish Fusiliers; 1900 42nd Royal Highlanders; 1901 2nd Bn. Royal Irish; 1902-04 Cheshire Regt.; 1905 Seaforth Highlanders; 1906 R. Scots Fusiliers; 1907 2nd Bn. East Lancs.; 1908 2nd Bn. Worcester Regt.; 1909-10 Leicestershire Regt.; 1911 Royal Warwickshire; 1912 Dorset Regt.; 1913 Royal Scots Fusiliers; 1914-20 *No tournament*; 1921 D. C. L. I.; 1922-23 Durham L. I.; 1924-26 Middlesex Regt.; 1927 Cheshire Regt. 1928-29 Warwickshire; 1930 K. O. S. B.; 1931 Royal W. Kents; 1932 Royal Irish Fusiliers; 1933 King's Liverpool Regt.; 1934 Sherwood Foresters; 1935-36 King's Liverpool Regt.; 1937-38 Bangalore Muslims; 1939 28th Field Brigade; 1940 Mahomedan Sporting; 1941 Welsh Regiment; 1942 Bata Sp. Club (Calcutta); 1943 R. A. F.; 1944 British Base Reinforcement Camp; 1945 Military Police.

National Football Championship

(*Santosh Trophy*)

1941	Bengal.	1944	Delhi.
1942	No Play.	1945	Bengal.
1943	No Play.		

HOCKEY

Beighton Cup

1895 Naval Volunteers; 1896 Naval Volunteers; 1897 S. P. G. Mission; 1898 S. P. G. Mission; 1899 Rangers; 1900 St. James School; 1901 Royal Irish Rifles; 1902 Royal Irish Rifles; 1903 S. P. G. Mission; 1904 Hornets A. C.; 1905 Sibpur College; 1906 S. P. G. Mission; 1907 S. P. G. Mission; 1908-09 Customs; 1910 Customs; 1911 Rangers; 1912 Customs; 1913 Rangers; 1914 M. A. O. College; 1915 Rangers; 1916 B. Y. Asso.

(Lucknow); 1917 Rangers; 1918 B. Y. Asso. (Lucknow); 1919 Xaverians; 1920 Asansol R. Club; 1921 Sibpur College; 1922 E. B. Ry.; 1923 Lucknow Y. M. A.; 1924 C. F. C.; 1925 Customs; 1926 Customs; 1927 Xaverians; 1928 Tele. Recreation; 1929 E. I. R.; 1930 Customs; 1931 Customs; 1932 Customs; 1933 Jhansi Heroes; 1934 Rangers; 1935 Customs; 1936 Bombay Customs; 1937 B. N. Ry. (Kharagpur); 1938 Customs; 1939 B. N. Ry.; 1940 Bhopal Wanderers; 1941 Bhagwant Club Tricumgarh and Bhopal Wanderers drew; 1943 B. N. Ry. (Kharagpur);

Aga Khan Cup

1934 Bombay Customs; 1935 Bombay Customs; 1936 Bombay Customs; 1937 Lahore Y. M. C. A.; 1938 Bhagwant Club (Tricumgarh); 1939 Bhopal Wanderers; 1940 B. B. C. I. Ry.; 1941 Bhagwant Club (Tricumgarh); 1942 No play; 1943 G. I. P. Ry.; 1944 Kamla Club (Cawnpur).

ALL-INDIA LAWN TENNIS CHAMPIONSHIPS

Men's Singles

1940—F. Puncce; 1941—Ghaus Mahomed; 1942—S. L. R. Sawhney; 1943—Ghaus Mahomed; 1945—Sumant Misra; 1946—Ghaus Mahomed.

Ladies' Singles

1940-41—Miss Lila Row; 1942—Mrs. O. Massy; 1943—Miss Leila Row; 1945—Miss Woodbridge; 1946—Miss Sansoni.

Men's Doubles

1940—F. Puncce & D. Mitic; 1941—Ghaus Mahomed & Y. Singh; 1942—Irshad Hussain & Iftikar Ahmed; 1943—Indulkar & J. R. Kaul; 1945—M. Janaki Ramiah & S. Bhunjanga Rao; 1946—J. M. Mehta & Sumant Misra.

Ladies' Doubles

1940—Miss L. Woodbridge & Mrs. Footit; 1941—Miss K. Haji & Miss D. Sansoni; 1942—Miss K. Haji & Mrs. Massy; 1943—Miss Leila Row & Miss Dubash; 1945—Miss Woodbridge & Mrs. Singh.

Mixed Doubles

1940—Iftikar Ahmed & Miss Woodbridge; 1941—Ghaus Mahomed & Miss M. Dubash; 1942—Sawhney & Miss K. Haji; 1943—Unfinished; 1945—Sumant Misra & Mrs. Singh; 1946—J. M. Mehta & Mrs. C. E. Cargin (walk-over).

ALL-INDIA TABLE TENNIS

Men's Singles

1941—V. Sivaraman (Madras); 1942—K. H. Kapadia (Bombay); 1943—Chandarana (Bombay); 1944—H. Aronson (U.S.A.).

Men's Doubles

1940—K. H. Kapadia and D. H. Kapadia (Bombay) ; 1941—Sivaraman & N. M. Naidu ; 1942—K. H. Kapadia & Chandrana (Bombay) ; 1943—Sivaraman & Sachithanandan (Madras) ; 1944—D. H. Kapadia (Bombay) & M. V. S. Vithal (Mysore).

Ladies Doubles

1940—Miss P. F. Madan & Miss Shroff (Bombay) ; 1941—Miss P. F. Madan & Miss M. Brodie ; 1942—Miss Brodie & Miss Madon (Bombay) ; 1943—Miss Madon & Miss Brodie (Bombay) ; 1944—Miss R. K. Shroff & Miss M. G. Kudav (Bombay).

Ladies' Singles

1940—Miss P. F. Madon (Bombay) ; 1941—Miss Brodie (Bombay) ; 1942—Miss Kudav (Bombay) ; 1943—Miss Madon (Bombay) ; 1944—Miss E. Bocarro.

Mixed Doubles

1940—K. H. Kapadia & Miss P. F. Madon (Bombay) ; 1941—K. H. Kapadia & Miss P. F. Madon ; 1942—K. H. Kapadia & Miss F. Madon (Bombay) ; 1943—Miss Madon & Kapadia (Bombay) ; 1944—C. Ramaswami (Mysore) & Miss B. M. Cassinath (Bombay).

Inter-Provincial Tournament

1939—Bombay beat Bengal, 5 to 1 ; 1940—Punjab beat Delhi, 5 to 0 ; 1941—Bengal beat Bombay, 5 to 4 ; 1942—Bombay beat Bengal ; 1943—Madras ; 1944—Bombay.

ALL-INDIA BADMINTON**Men's Singles**

1934—V. Madgavkar ; 1935—T. Banerji ; 1936-39—G. Lewis ; 1940—Chee Chong Keng (Penang) ; 1942—Prakashnath (Punjab) ; 1943—Prakashnath (Punjab) ; 1944—Davinder Mohan (Punjab) ; 1945—Prakashnath (Punjab).

Ladies' Singles

1934—No competition ; 1935—Mrs. Boland ; 1937—Miss P. Goss ; 1938—Miss P. Cook ; 1939—Mrs. Easdon ; 1940—Miss P. Goss ; 1941—No play ; 1942—Miss Tara Deodhar (Poona) ; 1943—Miss Tara Deodhar (Poona) ; 1944—Miss Tara Deodhar (Poona) ; 1945—Miss M. Chinoy.

Men's Doubles

1934—D. Minos & V. Minos ; 1935—V. Madgavkar & B. Roy ; 1936—Harnarain & Haidat ; 1937—Harnarain and Haidat ; 1938—G. Lewis &

- Kartar Singh ; 1939—Zahur and Har Narain ; 1940—Mongue and Mongue ; 1941—No play ; 1942—Prakashnath & Asokenath ; 1943—G. Lewis & Davinder Mohan ; 1944—K. M. Rangnekar & D. G. Mugwe (Bombay). 1945—G. Lewis & Davinder Mohan (Punjab).

Ladies Doubles

1934—No Competition ; 1935—Mrs. Boland & Mrs. Cameron ; 1936-37—Miss P. Goss & Miss D. Sandley ; 1938—Miss P. Goss & Mrs. K. Minos ; 1939—Miss Easdon & Miss Holloway ; 1940—Miss P. Goss & Miss Catchik ; 1941—No play ; 1942—Miss S. Deodhar & Miss T. Deodhar (Poona) ; 1943—Deodhar Sisters (Poona) ; 1944—Miss F. Talyarkhan & Miss M. R. Chinoy ; 1945—Miss Mumtaz Chinoy & Miss F. Talyarkhan (Bombay).

Mixed Doubles

1934-35—No competitions ; 1936—N. Knight & Mrs. Brydges ; 1937-38—G. Lewis & Mrs. Lewis ; 1939—Kartar Singh & Mrs. Easdon ; 1940—Madgavkar & Miss P. Goss ; 1941—No play ; 1942—G. D. Patwardhan & Miss T. Deodhar ; 1943—Miss R. Chitale & V. N. Iyer ; 1944—Prakashnath & Miss Sunder Deodar ; 1945—Prakashnath & Miss S. Deodar (Punjab-Poona).

BILLIARD CHAMPIONS

- 1941—V. R. Freer (Madura). 1943-45—No game.
1942—V. R. Freer (Madura). 1946—C. Hirajee (Calcutta).

WOMEN'S RECORDS IN INDIA

50 metres run	M. Smith (Bengal)	6.6 s.
100 metres run	B. Edward (Bengal)	12.8 s.
Running High Jump	Miss U. Lyons (Punj.)	4 ft. 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ in.
Shot-put	M. Yates (All., 1941)	31 ft. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.
Discus Throw	Miss Gilbert (Bom. 1942)	92 ft. 6 in.
Javelin Throw	N. Duke (Punjab)	91 ft. 8 in.
Broad Jump	Miss Gilbert (Bom.)	15 ft. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.
Putting the Shot	Miss Gilbert (Bom.)	29 ft. 11 in.
100 metres Breast Stroke	Miss Ballantyne (Bom.)	1 m. 47.2 s. (1944)
100 metres Free Style	Miss Ballantyne (Bom.)	1 m. 23.2 s. (1944)
200 metres Free Style	Miss Ballantyne (Bom.)	3 m. 12.5 s. (1944)
100 metres Back Stroke	Miss Ballantyne (Bom.)	1 m. 49.1 s. (1944)

SOME ALL-INDIA SPORTS RECORDS

Six miles Run	Raunak Sing (Patiala)	31 m. 33.5 s.
Hop-Step and Jump	L. T. Bossey (Mad.)	49 ft. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.
Pole Vault	A. Shafi Khan (Punj.)	36 12 ft. $\frac{7}{8}$ in.
Hammer Throw	Kishan Singh (Patiala)	44 146 ft. 10 in.
Running High Jump	Naranjan Singh (Punj.)	34 22 ft. 10 in.
High Jump	Gurman Singh (Pati.)	44 6 ft. 2 $\frac{1}{8}$ in.
Javelin Throw	E. Whiter (Punjab)	183 ft. 2 $\frac{3}{8}$ in.
Shot-put (best hard)	Zahur Ahmad (Punj.)	45 ft. 2 in.
One mile Run	R. Judge (U. P.)	4 m. 31.2 s.

3 miles Run	..	Raunak Sing (Patiala)	..	15 m. 3.7 s.
100 yds. Run	..	R. Vernieux (Bengal)	..	9.7 s.
220 yds. Run	..	M. Sutton (Bengal)	..	22.2 s.
440 yds. Run	..	G. C. Bhalla (Punj.)	1934	50 s.
880 yds. Run	..	G. C. Bhalla (Punj.)	1934	1 m. 59.2 s.
5 miles Run	..	Gujar Singh (Punjab)	..	27 m. 10 s.
6 miles Run	..	Raunak Sing (Patiala)	..	31 m. 35.5 s.
100 metres Run	..	J. Hart (Punjab)	..	10.6 s.
400 " "	..	Hazura Singh (Patiala)	..	49.8 s.
800 " "	..	Hardev Singh (Pat.)	'44	1 m. 49 s.
1,500 " "	..	Chand Singh (Punj.)	..	4 m. 5.2 s.
3,000 " "	..	Chand Singh (Patiala)	'44	8 m. 49.5 s.
5,000 " "	..	Raunak Sing (Patiala)	..	15 m. 23 s.
10,000 " "	..	Raunak Sing (Patiala)	..	32 m. 2.6 s.
15,000 " "	..	Swami (Bombay)	..	58 m. 16.4 s.
20,000 " "	..	Swami (Bombay)	..	1 h. 16 m. 0 s.
25,000 " "	..	Swami (Bombay)	..	1 h. 43 m. 15 s.
30,000 " "	..	R. G. Michael (Bom.)	..	2 hrs. 13 m. 50 s.
All-India Weight Lift- ing champion	..	Md. Naqi (Punj.)	..	727½ lbs.
120 yds. Hurdles	..	Mr. Sutton (Bengal)	'34	15.2 s.
440 yds. Hurdles	..	A. Hamid (Punjab)	..	58.0 s.
One mile swimming	..	A. Das (Bengal)	..	24 m. 7.1/5 s.
100 metres Free Style	..	Sachin Nag (Beng.)	'44	1 m. 4.2 s.
1,500 metres Free Style	..	D. Das (Bengal)	..	21 m. 56.6/10 s.
Non-stop Swimming	..	R. Chatterjee (All.)	..	88 hrs. 12 mins.
100 yds. Free Style	..	R. Gabrielson	..	55.4/5 s.
Hand-cuff Swimming	..	R. Chatterjee (All.)	..	72 hrs. 25 m.
Swimming with hands and feet tied	..	R. Chatterjee (All.)	..	60 hrs. 52 m.
220 yds. Swimming	..	A. Trounce (R.A.F.)	..	3 m. 35.3/5 s.
200 m. Breast Stroke	..	H. Banerjee (Bengal)	..	3 m. 6.2/5 s.
100 m. Back Stroke	..	R. Sawoo	..	1 m. 16.3/5 s.
Non-stop Swinging	..	Ali Hussain Shikari	..	63½ hrs.
Discus Throw	..	S. Gregory (U.S. Army, India)	..	134 ft. 9½ in.
Marathon	..	Chota Singh (Patiala)	..	2 hrs. 43 m. 43.8
5,000 metres walk	..	A. K. Dutt (Bengal)	'42	26 m. 30.6 s.
10,000 m. walk	..	C. B. Michael (Bom.)	..	58 m. 40.8 s.
4×100 m. relay (Swim- ming)	..	Bengal, 1941	..	4 m. 31.3/5 s.

FOREIGN RECORDS

CRICKET

Summary of Test Matches (England vs. Australia)

First played in 1876; Total matches played 143.

England have won 55 matches and Australia 57 matches and 31 matches have been drawn.

Test Match Records

- Highest Australian innings : 729 for 6 declared, Lords, 1930.
 Highest English innings : 903 for 7 declared, Oval, 1938.
 Lowest Australian innings : 36, Edgbaston, 1902.
 Lowest English innings : 45, Sydney, 1886-87.
 Highest scorer (for Australia) : D. G. Bradman, 334, Leeds, 1930.
 Highest scorer (for England) : Hutton, 364, at Oval, 1938.
 Highest Partnership (England) : Hobbs & Rhodes, 323, Melbourne, 1911-12.
 Highest aggregate : 1,601 for 29 wickets, Lords, 1930.
 Lowest aggregate : 291 for 40 wickets, Lords, 1888.
 Four centuries in one innings : Barnett 126, Hutton 100, Compton 102, and Paynter 216, not out (for England in 1938).
 Longest Test match between South Africa and M. C. C. (1939) for 10 days.

Record Individual Scores—First-Class Matches

*452	Bradman	1930	344	Grace	1876
437	Ponsford	1928	*343	Perrin	1904
429	Ponsford	1923	341	Hirst	1905
424	MacLaren	1895	340	Bradman	1929
369	Bradman	1935-36	338	Read	1888
383	Gregory	1906	338	Blunt	1932
368	Hutton	1938	*336	Hammond	1933
*365	Hill	1900	336	Ponsford	1928
364	Hutton	1938	334	Bradman	1930
*357	Abel	1899	333	Duleepsinghi	1930
352	Ponsford	1927	325	Sandham	1930
345	Macartney	1921	321	Murdock	1882
*344	Headley	1932					

*Not out.

*Not out.

Highest Totals

- 1107 Victoria v. New South Wales, 1926-27.
 1059 Victoria v. Tasmania, 1922-2.
 912 by Holkar v. Mysore in Ranjit Trophy, 1945-46.
 903 M. C. C. v. Australia, England, 1938.

Cricket Records, First Class

- Highest totals* (1st class)—1,107 Victoria v. New South Wales.
Highest First Wicket Partnership—555 Sutcliffe and Holmes for Yorkshire v. Essex in 1932.
Second Wicket Partnership—541 by Bradman and Ponsford, Oval, 1934.
Third Wicket Partnership—473 by Ponsford (281 not out) and McCabe (192) against M. C. C., 1934.
Highest Test Score—Hutton (England) scored 364 against Australia at Oval in 1938.
Aggregate—J. B. Hobbs—61,221 ; W. G. Grace—54,896.

Highest Aggregate—Fifth Test, Durban, 1939. South Africa 530 and 481; England 316 and 654 for 5 wickets—1,981 in all.
Highest Centuries in one innings—Six individual centuries by Holkar against Mysore in Ranjit Trophy, 1945-46.

England v. South Africa

Since first match in 1888-89 there have been 64 matches between the countries. England have won 29 matches, South Africa twelve and twenty-three matches have been drawn.

England v. West Indies

First played in 1928. England have won 7 matches, West Indies 3 and 4 matches have been drawn.

England v. New Zealand

First played in 1929. England have won 3 matches, New Zealand 0. and 9 matches have been drawn.

WORLD'S TRACK & FIELD RECORDS

Running

100 yards	{ J. Owens (U.S.A.)	..	9.4 s. (1930)
	{ F. Wykoff (U.S.A.)	..	9.4 s. (1935)
200 yards	.. J. Owens (U.S.A.)	..	20.3 s. (1935)
One mile race	.. G. Haegg (Sweden)	..	4 m. 1.4 s. (1945)
Two miles race	.. G. Haegg (Sweden)	..	8 m. 53.9 s. (1943)
Five miles race	.. P. Nurmi (Finland)	..	24 m. 6.2 s. (1924)
Ten miles race	.. P. Nurmi (Finland)	..	50 m. 15 s. (1928)
25 miles race	M. Faneli (Italy)	..	1 h. 26 m. 10.8 s. (1934)
100 metres	.. J. Owens (U.S.A.)	..	10.2 s. (1936)
400 metres	.. R. Harbig (Germany)	..	46 s. (1939)
800 metres	.. R. Harbig (Germany)	..	1 m. 46.4 s. (1939)
1,000 metres	.. R. Harbig (Germany)	..	2 m. 21.5 s. (1930)
1,500 metres	.. A. Anderson (Sweden)	..	3 m. 43 s. (1943)
2,000 metres	.. Romani (U.S.A.)	..	5 m. 16.8 s. (1937)
3,000 metres	.. G. Haegg (Sweden)	..	8 m. 1.2 s. (1942)
5,000 metres	.. G. Haegg (Sweden)	..	13 m. 32.4 s. (1942)
10,000 metres	.. T. Maki (Finland)	..	30 m. 2 s. (1938)
20,000 metres	.. A. Csaplár (Hungary)	..	1 h. 21 m. 27 s. (1939)

Walking

1 mile	.. Anderson (Sweden)	..	4 m. 1.6/11 s.
5 miles	.. A. H. G. Pope (Great Br.)	..	35 m. 47.2 s. (1932)
10 miles	.. F. J. Redman (G. B.)	..	1 h. 14 m. 30.6 s.
25 miles	.. Janis Dalinsh (Latvia)	..	3 h. 32 m. 20 s. (1934)
5,000 metres	.. V. Hardms (Sweden)	..	20 m. 31.6 s. (1943)
10,000 metres	.. V. Hardmo (Sweden)	..	42 m. 47.8 s. (1943)
30,000 metres	.. H. Olsson (Sweden)	..	2 h. 28 m. 57.4 s. (1943)

Hurdles

120 yds. (3 ft. 6 in. hds.)	F. Towns (U.S.A.)	13.7 s. (1936)
240 yds. (3 ft. hds.)	Gibson (U.S.A.)	52.6 s. (1927)
110 metres (3 ft. 6 in.)	F. Towns (U.S.A.)	13.7 s. (1936)
400 metres (3 ft. hds.)	Glenn Hardin (U.S.A.)	50.6 s. (1934)

Jumping

Running Broad Jump	J. Owens (U.S.A.)	26 ft. 8½ in. (1935)
Standing Broad Jump	R. C. Ewry (U.S.A.)	11 ft. 4½ in. (1904)
Running High Jump	L. Steers (U.S.A.)	6 ft. 11 in. (1941)
Hop, Step & Jump	Tajima (Japan)	52 ft. 5½ in. (1936)
Pole Vault	C. Warmerdam (U.S.A.)	15 ft. 7¼ in. (1942)

Discus Throw

Best Vault	A. Consolini (Italy)	174 ft. 10¼ in. (1941)
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Javelin Throw

Javelin Throw	Nikkanen (Finland)	258 ft. 2½ in. (1938)
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Decathlon

7,900 points	G. Morris (U.S.A.)	1936.
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Hammer Throw	E. Blask (Germany)	193 ft. 6¼ in. (1938)
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WOMAN'S WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

100 yds.	M. Stephens (U.S.A.)	10.5 secs. (1937)
100 metres	S. Walasiewicz (Poland)	10.9 secs. (1937)
	Jean Shiley (U.S.A., 1932)	
Running High Jump	M. Didrikson (U.S.A., 1932)	1.65 m.
	Donal Ratjen (Ger. 1937)	
Running Broad Jump	K. Hitomi (Japan)	5.98 m. (1928)
Discus Throw	Gisela Manermayer (Ger.)	48.31 m. (1936)
Javelin Throw	Volkhausen (Germany)	154 ft. 6 in. (1938)
<i>Swimming (free style)</i>		
100 yds.	R. Hveger (Denmark) 1939	59.7 s.
<i>Swimming (free style)</i>		
100 metres	W. Denouden (Holland) 1936	1 m. 4.6 s.

SPEED RECORDS

Motor Boat	Sir M. Campbell (Br.)	141.74
Motor Car	John Cobb (Br.)	368.85
Motor Cycle	Earnest Henne	140.7
Motor Baby Car	Kohlrausch	151.86
Air plane	Group-Captain Wilson (Eng.)	606

Skating (roller)	..	Eglington	..	24.95
Earth's Rotation	..			1000 (about)
Sound	..			740 (about)
Pistol bullet	..			
Rifle bullet (Springfield)	..			1270 for 1000 yds
Running	..	Anderson (Sweden)	..	545.5
Walk (1 mile)	..	A. Stabbs (Australia)	..	4 m. 1.6 s.
Swimming (100 yds.)	..	Weissmuller (U.S.A.)	..	6 m. 18.2 s.
Airship	..	R. 100, England, 1929	..	51 s.
Cycling (unp?)	..	V. L. Johnson, 1909	..	81.50 miles.
Horse	ve	Monastery Garen, Epsom	..	$\frac{1}{2}$ mile in 28 s.
Greyhound	..	Beef Cutlet, 1932	..	40.91 m.p.h.
Running	..	Amat. F. Wykoff (U.S.A.), 1930	..	500 yds. 24.91 s.

MILE RUNNERS

1874 W. Slade (Eng.)	4 m. 24.5 s.	1942 G. Haegg (Swed.)	4 m. 6.2 s.
1923 P. Nurmi (Swed.)	4 m. 10.4 s.	1942 G. Haegg (Swed.)	4 m. 4.6 s.
1931 J. Ladoumegue (France)	4 m. 9.2 s.	1943 A. Andersson (Sweden)	4 m. 2.6 s.
1933 J. Lovelock (U.S.)	4 m. 7.6 s.		
1934 J. Cunningham (U.S.)	4 m. 6.8 s.	1943 A. Andersson (Sweden)	4 m. 1.6 s.
1937 S. Wooderson (Eng.)	4 m. 6.4 s.	1945 G. Haegg (Swed.)	4 m. 1.4 s.

BOXING CHAMPIONS

<i>Heavy Weight</i> (over 175 lbs.)	Joe Lewis.	<i>Light Weight</i> (135 lbs.)	Juan Zurita.
<i>Light-Heavy Weight</i> (175 lbs.)	Gus Lesvitch.	<i>Feather Weight</i> (126 lbs.)	Sal Bartolo.
<i>Middle Weight</i> (160 lbs.)	Tony Zale.	<i>Bantam Weight</i> (118 lbs.)	Manuel Ortiz.
<i>Welter Weight</i> (147 lbs.)	Fred Cochrane.	<i>Fly Weight</i> (112 lbs.)	Jackie Patterson.

WORLD SWIMMING RECORDS (men)

Free Style—

100 yds.	..	J. Weissmuller (U.S.A., 1927)	51 s.
100 metres	..	P. Fick (U.S.A., 1936)	56.4 s.
1 mile	..	J. Medica (U.S.A., 1934)	20 m. 57.8 s.

Breast Stroke—

100 yds.	..	R. R. Hough (U.S.A., 1939)	1 m. 00.6 s.
100 metres	..	R. R. Hough (U.S.A., 1939)	1 m. 07.3 s.

Back Stroke—

100 yds.	..	A. Kiefer (U.S.A., 1939)	1 m. 04.8 s.
100 metres	..	A. Kiefer (U.S.A., 1936)	58.8 s.

DERBY RACE

1925 Manna.	1932 April the Fifth.	1939 Blue Peter.
1926 Coronach.	1933 Hyperion.	War Derby.
1927 Call Boy.	1934 Winsor Lad.	1940 Pont l'Eveque.
1928 Felstead.	1935 Bahram.	1941 Owen Tudor.
1929 Trigo.	1936 Mahmoud.	1942 Watling Street.
1930 Blenheim.	1937 Mid-day Sun.	1943 Straight Deal.
1931 Cameronian.	1938 Bois Roussel.	1945 Dante.

SOME NOTABLE RECORDS

Delayed Parachute Drop—The airman Jevdo Kinos dropped 20,000 ft. from a plane before pulling the parachute cord after which he safely drifted 2,000 ft. to the earth.

Stratosphere Ascent—(1) Soviet Stratosphere Balloon "Osoxiakhim" Syrius (Jan. 30, 1934) 12·8 miles. (2) Soviet Balloon 'U.S.S.R.' (Sept. 1933) 11½ miles. (3) G.T. Settle (American Airman, Nov. 1933) nearly 11 miles. (4) Professor Piccard (1932) 10·12 miles. (5) A height of 130,000 ft. was reached at Moscow on 5th April, 1935 by an automatic stratosphere sounding balloon which did not carry any passenger. The Soviet claims this as world record. (6) World's largest balloon 'Explorer' II (piloted by Capt. Stevens and Capt. Anderson (America) reached an altitude of 13·7 miles (72,395 ft.) on 12th November, 1935 breaking the previous altitude records and found 78°F. below zero.

World's Speed-boat Records—Sir Malcolm Campbell broke the world's water speed recorded by driving "Blue Bird II" at 141·74 miles per hour on 19th August, 1939.

World Air Speed Record—Group-Captain Wilson attained on Nov. 7, 1945 mean speed of 606 m.p.h. which is now a world record.

Motor Cycle Record—World's Motor Cycling record is now held by Earnest Henne (Hungary) with 171·674 miles per hour.

Under Sea Record—In 1934 Prof. Bebe and Mr. Otis Barton succeeded in descending into ocean to a depth of 3,028 ft. in his Bathysphere near Bermuda Island.

Ski Running—The fastest record speed ever reached by man on his own legs was claimed for Norwegian Ski Champion Kjelland at St Moritz, Feb. 16, 1933 wherein he attained speed of 150 kilometres or almost 100 miles an hour.

Record Ski Jump—A new world record for ski-jumping was claimed for Reider Anderson who cleared 311·60 ft. at Planica, Yugoslavia, March 17, 1935.

Motor Speed Record—John Cobb (England) broke Capt. Eyston's world land speed record of 357·5 miles an hour by covering a mile in each direction at an average speed of 368·85 miles an hour in 1939.

Endurance Swimming Record—Ruth Litzig's (German girl) record—78 hours 46 minutes.

P. K. Ghosh's (Calcutta) record—79 hours 24 minutes.

Pedro Candiotti's (Buenos Aires) record—87 hours 19 minutes.

Robin Chatterjee's (Allahabad) record—88 hours 12 minutes.

Motor Cycling—Road-racing champion—Stanley Woods (Ireland) won the Tourist Trophy in record time of 3 hours, 15 minutes, 35 secs. doing the seven laps of the 264 miles course over winding roads at the record speed of 81.04 miles per hour.

World's Cycling Reliability & Endurance Record—Ossie Nicholson (Australia) set up a new world's cycling reliability and endurance record by covering more than 43,000 miles in 365 consecutive days.

Handcuffed Swimming—Prafulla Ghosh established a new record or hand-cuffed endurance swimming by remaining in water for 71 hours 13 minutes, thus beating Robin Chatterjee's record of 63 hours. Robin Chatterjee recaptured the world manacled endurance swimming record when he completed 72 hours and 25 minutes (8-9-36).

AVIATION RECORDS

Aeroplanes

Distance air line—Squadron-Leader Kellet, Flt.-Lieut. Gething and Pilot-officer Caine and Flt.-Lieut. Burnett, Flt.-Lieut. Coombe and Sergt. Grey, Great Britain 5-7 Nov., 1938—Ismailia (Suez)—Darwin—7,158.440 miles (11,520.421 kilometres).

Distance over closed circuit—Lt.-Col. A. Tondi, Capt. Dagasso, F. Vegnoli and A. Stagline, Italy, July 30—August 1, 1939—8,037.899 miles (12,935.770 kilometres).

Greatest Speed—Group-Capt. Wilson (Eng.) 7th Nov. 1945 in British Jet-propelled Gloster motor plane—606 m.p.h.

Altitude—Lt.-Col. Mario Pezzi, Italy, 22 October, 1938—56,046.473 feet (17,083 metres).

First Aeroplane—World's first controlled flight in power-driven aeroplane by Orville Wright on December 17, 1903.

Non-Stop Distance Flight—U.S.S.R. Crew consisting of M. Grover, S. Danilin and Yumachev set up world non-stop record in July 12-14, 1937 by flying from Moscow to California 6,760 miles, over North Pole.

Refuelling Endurance Record—Remaining for 27 days 5 hours and 34 minutes in the air, the brothers Fred Keys and Al Keys set up the world refuelling endurance record.

Non-Refuelling Duration—Walter Lees and F. Brossby (America) on 28th May, 1931, performed world's non-refueling endurance record of 84 hours, 33 minutes.

Topsy-turvy Flying—Italian pilot Flt.-Lt. Boscola broke a record by staying in the air upside-down for 5 hours, 51 minutes near Rome.

Flight to Poles—Commander Byrd is the first person to reach South Pole by aeroplane.

Seaplane Around the World—Mr. Howard Hughes of America broke all the world records by completing the flight round the world in 3 days 19 hrs. 8 mins. He covered 14,824 miles.

Distance—6,750 miles non-stop flight from Moscow to California by Russian aviators, Gromov, Yumashev and Danilin in 2 days 14 hrs. 20 mins., July 14, 1937.

8,035.97 miles in 56½ hours—a new world's distance record was set up by Lt.-Col. Tondi Capt. Dagasso and Plt. F. Vignoti (Italy), on July 30-August 1, 1939.

11,323 miles in two days 23 hrs. by Scott and Black (England), England to Australia, October 20-23, 1934.

16,500 miles round the world in 8 days 15 hrs. and 51 mins. by Wiley Post and Gatty (U.S.A.) June 23-July 2, 1931.

7,158 miles flight by Squadron Leader Kellett, Cething and Caine (England) on November 5-7, 1938.

Speed—Group-Capt. Wilson on Nov. 7, 1945 broke all previous records by attaining the mean speed of 606 m.p.h. The previous was 469.11 m.p.h. by F. Wendel (Germany) in 1939.

U. S. India Record—Brig.-Gen. W. Lawrence (U.S.A.), starting from Morrison Field, West Palm Beach, Florida, U.S.A. reached Barrackpur, Calcutta in 44 hrs. 30 mins., flying time—a distance of approximately 10,800 statute miles.

Seaplanes

Distance air line—Capt. Bennet and F. O. Harvey (Great Britain) 6-8 October, 1938; Dundee to Port Nolloth (South Africa)—5,997.462 miles (9,652.001 kilometres).

Distance over closed circuit—M. Stoppani and C. Tonini; Italy, 27-28 May, 1937—3,231.123 miles (5,200 kilometres).

Greatest Speed—Francesco Agello, Italy, 23rd October, 1934—440.681 miles per hour.

Balloons

Balloons: Duration—H. Kaulen, 13-17th Dec., 1913—87 hrs.

Altitude—Capt. Stevens and Capt. Anderson (U.S.A.) reached height of 72,394.795 feet in Nov. 11, 1935.

Distance—Berliner, Germany, Feb. 8, 9, 10, 1914—1,896.856 miles.

Air Ship

Long Distance—Germany to Tokio, 15-19th August, 1929. Graf Zeppelin—7,500 miles.

Gliders

Duration—K. Schmidt (Germany) in August 1933—36 hrs. 35 mins.

Distance air line—O. Klepikova (U.S.S.R.)—June 6, 1939—465.532 miles.

Altitude—E. Ziller (Germany) on November 21, 1938—88,434.338 ft.

Parachute

Descent—Rene Michenaud (1932, France) jumped from an aeroplane at an altitude of 25,590 ft. in France.

Helicopters

Distance air line—Karl Bode, Germany, June 20, 1938—143.069 miles.

Duration—J. Sirkosky (U.S.A.) 1943—1 hr. 32 m. 49 s.

WOMEN'S FLIGHT RECORDS

- Non-stop flight*—Mrs. Dupeyron (France) who made a non-stop flight of 2,447·728 miles from Ovan to Iraq on May 15, 16, 1938.
- Distance, Airline*—V. Grisodoubova and P. Ossipenko, U.S.S.R. Sept. 24-25, 1938—3,671·432 miles (5,908·610 kilometres).
- Altitude*—World record in 1936 has been made by Mille Hilsz (France) who rose to the height of 46,948·725 feet.
- Speed*—J. Cochran (U.S.A.) on Sept. 21, 1937, 292·271 miles per hour.
- Atlantic flight*—Mrs. Amelia Earhart Putnam (U.S.A.) is the first woman to make trans-Atlantic solo flight from Harbour Grace to Ireland, 2,026·5 miles in 13 hrs. 30 mins., on May 20-21, 1932.

INDIA'S FOREIGN TRADE

Balance of Trade in Merchandise in Br. India

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	<i>Exports</i>	<i>Re-exports</i>	<i>Imports*</i>	<i>Total trade</i>	<i>Balance</i>
1939-40	203,92	9,65	164,76	378,33	+ 48,81
1940-41	186,90	11,81	156,72	355,43	+ 41,99
1941-42	237,55	15,33	172,86	425,74	+ 80,02
1942-43	187,63	7,07	110,34	305,04	+ 84,36
1943-44	199,03	10,96	119,05	328,91	+ 90,94
1944-45	210,39	16,68	200,99	+ 26,08

* Exclusive of the value of railway materials.

Direction of India's Sea-borne Trade

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	<i>Imports</i>		<i>Exports (Ex re-exports)</i>	
	<i>British Empire</i>	<i>Foreign Countries</i>	<i>British Empire</i>	<i>Foreign Countries</i>
1938	87,88	65,54	85,21	76,48
1942	69,68	44,07	1,30,54	75,08
1943	52,51	58,33	1,24,24	62,08
1944	73,92	1,06,98	1,40,90	77,94

Direction of India's total Sea-borne Trade

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	<i>Imports</i>	<i>(Excluding re-exports)</i>	<i>Balance</i>
1938	1,53,42	1,61,69	+ 8,27
1942	1,13,75	2,05,62	+ 91,87
1943	1,10,84	1,86,32	+ 75,48
1944	1,80,90	2,18,84	+ 37,94

Composition of Trade*Imports (In Crores)*

	<i>Food</i>	<i>Raw Materials</i>	<i>Manufactured Articles</i>
1938	20.70	36.62	93.61
1942	10.89	43.39	57.82
1943	7.00	61.90	40.53
1944	16.21	104.86	57.64

Exports (In Crores)

	<i>Food</i>	<i>Raw Materials</i>	<i>Manufactured Articles</i>
1938	39.65	74.70	51.34
1942	50.49	53.42	107.74
1943	43.90	49.46	101.39
1944	51.99	57.19	119.33

India's Imports & Exports of certain commodity Groups*(In Lakhs of Rs.)**Imports*

	1938	1942	1943	1944
Grain, Pulse & Flour	10,83	2,72	1	6,93
Oils	16,28	23,77	31,90	71,09
Cotton	11,07	11,17	19,93	22,14
Machinery	19,81	11,54	10,23	14,83
Cotton Yarn & Manufactures	14,61	2,06	1,09	1,52

Exports

	1938	1942	1943	1944
Tea	23,47	31,62	33,44	40,65
Seeds	15,94	10,38	10,26	11,25
Raw Cotton	23,93	7,74	6,29	9,01
Jute	12,24	10,13	7,37	7,95
Hide & Skins	11,58	11,45	13,85	14,04
Cotton Yarn	8,03	49,67	42,91	40,80
Jute Manufactures	26,18	42,20	44,43	60,59

Direction of India's Foreign Trade*(P.C. of Share in total Imports)*

		<i>U.K.</i>	<i>Empire countries</i>	<i>Foreign countries</i>			
		<i>U.K.</i>	<i>Empire countries</i>	<i>Foreign countries</i>			
1920-21	.. 61	5	34	1936-37	.. 38	11	51
1924-25	.. 54	8	38	1939-40	.. 25	31	44
1928-29	.. 45	9	46	1940-41	.. 21	40	39
1932-33	.. 37	8	55				

(P.C. of Share in Exports including Re-exports)

		<i>U.K.</i>	<i>Empire countries</i>	<i>Foreign countries</i>			
		<i>U.K.</i>	<i>Empire countries</i>	<i>Foreign countries</i>			
1920-21	.. 22	21	57	1936-37	.. 32	14	54
1924-25	.. 26	13	61	1939-40	.. 35	21	44
1928-29	.. 21	14	65	1940-41	.. 31	30	39
1932-33	.. 28	17	55				

INDIA'S PUBLIC DEBT

The outstanding features of the public debt of India are (1) a 51 per cent. increase in the total interest-bearing obligations of the Government of India (including unfunded debt and deposits), (2) a steady rise up to 1942-43 in the amount of terminable and non-terminable loans, (3) a considerable increase up to 1942-43 in the volume of floating debt represented by treasury bills, (4) a decline up to 1942-43 in the amount of small savings in P. O. Savings Bank deposits, cash and savings certificates followed by a relatively rapid recovery during last two years.

Government Balances and Short-term borrowing—The marked rise in the Central Government's balances during 1944-45 reflects the increased extent to which the expenditure on Allied account is covered by the proceeds of local borrowing. It also results from the advance payments of income tax, the deposits in respect of the excess profits tax of same imported commodities on Government account against debits in Starling and the proceeds of sale of lend-lease silver. The average of monthly balances during the year was Rs. 173.69 crores being nearly six times the average for 1943-44 at Rs. 30.25 crores.

The main trends in treasury bills finance reflects the continued reduction in outstandings, comparatively larger response to tenders and further easing of the rate offered on these bills.

Government of India Treasury Bills

(In thousands of Rupees)

	<i>Amount tendered</i>	<i>Amount sold</i>	<i>Inter- mediates sold</i>	<i>Total amount sold</i>	<i>Amount outstanding at the end of the year</i>
1944-45 ..	551,48,50	229,27,75	229,27,75	86,70,50
1943-44 ..	628,59,00	359,71,25	36,47,50	396,18,75	110,61,25
1942-43 ..	527,43,50	309,42,00	62,50,75	371,92,75	264,69,50
1941-42 ..	140,27,00	81,00,50	37,59,50	118,60,00	136,97,75
1940-41 ..	162,48,00	84,00,00	17,32,75	101,32,75	68,90,25
1939-40 ..	116,96,50	70,50,00	49,93,00	120,43,00	54,70,50

Ways & means Advances—With the great improvement in the government's ways and means position as reflected in the high level of their balances, they had no need to approach the Bank for temporary advances. The total amount of such borrowings from the Bank had been Rs. 31 crores in 1943-44 as against Rs. 162 crores in 1942-43.

Long term debt and other borrowing—The Government's ability to float loans on progressively favourable terms has contributed to the steadiness of the gilt-edged market and reinforced the policy of cheap money. Considerable reliance has been placed by the Central Government on borrowing during last two years. In the borrowing programme, defence loans have been supplemented by the issue of rupee counterparts of repatriated sterling loans. During 1944-45 additional securities made available to the public were two Victory Loans, Five Year Interest-free Prize Bonds, 3½ per cent. Rupee counterparts. Besides, National Savings campaign resulted in the increase of various forms of small savings.

Since 1934-35 a provision of Rs. 3 crores have been made annually from revenue for reduction of debt.

The total public debt of India rose from Rs. 1,381·83 crores in 1943-44 to Rs. 1,609·69 crores in 1944-45.

The total interest-bearing obligations increased by Rs. 642 crores from Rs. 1,206 crores at the end of 1938-39 to Rs. 1,848 crores at the end of 1944-45. As against the total debt of 1,848 crores, the assets held by Government totalled Rs. 1,316 crores, made up of (1) capital outlay on Railways, Rs. 788 crores (2) capital advance to other commercial departments of Central and Provincial Governments and States Rs. 138 crores (3) debt due from Burma Rs. 48 crores (4) deposits from H. M's Government for redemption of Railway annuities Rs. 29 crores and (5) cash and securities held on treasury account Rs. 312 crores.

Various Defence Loans including Small Savings

Since 1940 to 1944-45

<i>(In Lakhs of Rs.)</i>			<i>(In Lakhs of Rs.)</i>		
3 p.c. Six-year Defence Bonds—			3 p.c. Loan 1953-55 (4th Defence)		114.58
(a) 1st Series ..	71		5-year Interest-free Prize ..		4.15
(b) 2nd Series ..	64.43		3 p.c. Victory Loan 1957 ..		112.82
3 p.c. 2nd Defence Loan (1949-52) ..	59.16		3 p.c. 2nd Victory Loan (1959-61) ..		6.15
3-year Interest-free Bonds	2.90		2½ p.c. Loan (1948-52) ..		50.00
3 p.c. Loan 1951-54 (3rd Defence) ..	54.80		P.O. Cash Certificate ..		21.21
Rupee counterparts ..	224.26		Defence Savings Certificate		6.42
3 p.c. Loan 1963-65 (Spl. issue) ..	30.21		National Savings ..		28.03
3 p.c. Funding Loan (1966-68) ..	110.12		P.O. Savings Bank ..		1.89
			P.O. Defence Savings Bank		8.33
			Total ..		857.75

Outstandings of Rupee Counterparts of Repatriated Sterling Loans

(In Crores of Rs.)

1940-41 ..	61.27	1943-44 ..	209.29
1941-42 ..	83.10	1944-45 ..	224.26
1942-43 ..	131.24		

Public Debts of India since 1914

(A) Rupee Debt (in crores of Rupees)

(B) Sterling Debt* (in crores of Rupees)

Rs. p.c. increase + or decrease—

1914 ..	179.77 —	265.81 —	
1919 ..	358.78 + 99.5	304.08 + 14.4	
1924 ..	482.52 + 35.5	397.76 + 30.8	
1929 ..	551.21 + 14.2	472.78 + 18.9	
1934 ..	693.09 + 25.7	512.15 + 8.3	
1939 ..	709.96 + 2.4	469.10 — 8.4	
1940 ..	727.79 + 2.6	442.49 — 5.7	
1941 ..	861.17 + 18.3	344.93 — 22.1	*Converted at 1s. 4d.
1942 ..	941.00 + 9.3	210.70 — 38.9	per rupee up to
1943 ..	1,206.18 + 28.2	55.59 — 73.6	1923-24 & thereafter
1944 ..	1,342.69 + 11.3	39.14 — 29.4	at 1s. 6d.
1945 ..	1,571.85 + 17.1	37.80 — 3.4	

Post Office Cash Certificates

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

			<i>Amount outstanding</i>				<i>Amount outstanding</i>
1939-40	57,02	1942-43	34,57
1940-41	46,98	1943-44	34,64
1941-42	32,01	1944-45	35,81

Post Office Savings Certificates

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

			<i>Amount outstanding</i>				<i>Amount outstanding</i>
1940-41	2,29	1943-44	6,97
1941-42	4,35	1944-45	6,42
1942-43	5,56				

Post Office National Savings Certificates

(In lakhs of Rupees)

			<i>Amount outstanding</i>				<i>Amount outstanding</i>
1943-44	8,65	1944-45	28,03

Post Office Savings Bank

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

			<i>Amount outstanding</i>				<i>Amount outstanding</i>
1939-40	78,38	1942-43	52,28
1940-41	59,57	1943-44	64,24
1941-42	52,13	1944-45	80,27

Post Office Defence Savings Bank Deposits

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

			<i>Amount outstanding</i>				<i>Amount outstanding</i>
1941-42	11	1943-44	3,98
1942-43	40	1944-45	8,33

CURRENCY**Absorption of Small Coin***(In Thousands of Rupees)*

1939-40	..	2,20,98	1942-43	..	11,63,58
1940-41	..	4,28,20	1943-44	..	18,46,26
1941-42	..	5,06,27	1944-45	..	19,20,38

Wartime absorption of Currency*(In Lakhs of Rupees)*

		<i>Notes</i>	<i>Rupee Coin</i>	<i>Small Coin</i>	<i>Total</i>
1940-41	..	19,11	33,23	4,28	56,62
1941-42	..	152,40	7,18	5,06	164,64
1942-43	..	261,85*	44,93	11,64	318,42
1943-44	..	238,91*	25,60	18,46	282,97
1944-45	..	202,39*	10,05	19,20	231,64

Total Notes issued in India*(In Lakhs of Rupees)*

1938-39	..	202,66	1942-43	..	525,24
1939-40	..	216,84	1943-44	..	787,67
1940-41	..	245,09	1944-45	..	979,62
1941-42	..	299,46			

Whole Rupees coined and issued since 1835

Calcutta	..	270,20,56,128	Lahore	..	8,54,00,000
Madras	..	10,76,07,305			
Bombay	..	439,71,35,165	TOTAL	..	729,21,98,598

* Excluding Burma.

CENTRAL BUDGET**India's Public revenue and Expenditure***(In Crores of Rupees)*

		<i>Revenue</i>	<i>Expenditure</i>	<i>Surplus(+) or Deficit(-)</i>	<i>P.C. of (1) & (2)</i>
1938-39	..	84.52	85.15	- 0.63	99.3
1939-40	..	94.57	94.57	100.0
1940-41	..	107.65	114.18	- 6.53	94.3
1941-42	..	134.57	147.26	- 12.69	91.4
1942-43	..	176.88	289.05	- 112.17	61.2
1943-44	..	252.06	441.84	- 189.78	57.0
1944-45 (Revised)	..	356.88	512.65	- 155.77	69.6
1945-46 (Budget)	..	362.34	517.63	- 155.29	70.0

Important Heads of Revenue*(In Crores of Rupees)*

	1938-39	1943-44	1944-45	1945-46
			<i>Revised</i>	<i>Budget</i>
Customs	40.51	26.20	40.00	55.25
Central Excise Duties ..	8.66	27.42	39.07	48.59
Corporation Tax ..	2.04	51.45	106.11	89.67
Taxes on Income ..	15.24	77.69	103.89	100.83
Currency & Mint ..	0.58	9.97	12.55	12.28
Rly. Contribution ..	1.37	37.64	32.00	32.00
P. & T.	0.19	9.03	9.32	11.85
Total Tax Revenue ..	76.35	193.22	300.58	305.79

Total Interest Bearing Obligations*(Including unfunded Debt and Deposits)*

	<i>Crores</i>		<i>Crores</i>	
1938-39	1,205.76	1942-43	1,353.13	
1939-40	1,203.86	1943-44	1,532.47	
1940-41	1,247.67	1944-45 (Revised)	1,819.02	
1941-42	1,209.21	1945-46 (Budget)	2,180.57	

Railway Budget

	1938-39	1943-44	1944-45	1945-46
				<i>(Budget)</i>
Gross Traffic Receipts ..	99.62	1,85.43	2,14.30	2,20.00
Total Working Expenses ..	69.18	1,08.84	1,47.49	1,59.87
Net Revenue ..	30.67	79.37	69.82	63.90
Surplus ..	1.37	50.84	42.01	36.51
Contribution to General Revenue ..	1.37	37.64	32.00	32.00
Contribution to Railway Reserve Fund	13.20	10.01	4.51
Capital at change ..	7,55.26	7,80.73	7,89.59	7,99.09
Depreciation Reserve Fund ..	19.61	82.07	92.30	98.09

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE REVENUE & EXPENDITURE OF GOVT. OF INDIA

(In lakhs of Rupees)

	Revised Estimates 1944-45	Budget Estimates 1945-46
Revenue—		
Customs	40,00	55,25
Central Excise Duties	39,07	48,59
Corporation Tax	1,06,11	89,67
Taxes on Income other than Corporation Tax	1,03,89	1,00,83
Salt	9,30	9,30
Opium	1,05	1,27
Interest	1,74	1,44
Civil Administration	2,22	2,26
Currency & Mint	12,55	12,28
Civil Works	61	66
Receipts from Indian States	63	63
Receipts connected with war	21,28	16,42
Other Sources of Revenue	3,67	3,18
Posts & Telegraphs—Net contribution to General Revenues	9,32	11,85
Railways—Net contribution to General Revenues	32,00	32,00
Deduct Share of Income-tax Revenue payable to Provinces	—26,56	—23,29
Total Revenue	3,56,88	3,62,34
Deficit	1,55,77	1,55,29
TOTAL	5,12,65	5,17,63
Expenditure—		
Direct Demand on Revenue	8,52,67	8,86,38
Irrigation etc.	13,32	10,77
Posts & Telegraphs—Capital outlay	—0,54	1,60
Debt Services	22,60,77	33,95,19
Civil Administration	24,59,00	27,55,00
Currency & Mint	2,02,77	1,70,49
Civil Works, etc.	2,50,14	2,46,58
Miscellaneous	11,21,23	16,20,78
Defence Services net	3,97,23,01	3,94,23,39
Contributions and Miscellaneous adjustments between Central & Provincial Govts.	8,75,55	1,73,81
Extraordinary Payments	34,89,00	30,79,00
Total Expenditure charged to Revenue	5,12,64,92	5,17,62,99
Surplus	5,12,64,92	5,17,62,99
Total	5,12,64,92	5,17,62,99

PROVINCIAL BUDGETS

Some Points of Provincial Budgets

The revenue receipts for all provinces rose by 137 per cent. between 1938-39 and 1944-45 from Rs. 84.74 crores to Rs. 200.78 crores. Due to higher prices and ampler taxable capacity, provincial budget continued to show expansion in revenue and surpluses in most cases with the notable exception of Bengal. The continued rise in provincial revenues is accounted for by higher tax revenues, resulting from enhancement of existing rates of taxes and new war-time levies, improved receipts under land revenue and a rise in the provincial share of the divisible pool of income tax under Niemer-Award.

Ways & means Advances—During the year 1944-45, all the provinces with the exception of United Provinces, Sind and North-West Frontier Province, had recourse to ways and means advances from the Bank. The advances aggregated Rs. 13.01 crores as compared with Rs. 12.42 crores in 1943-44.

Provincial Loans—On 8th August, 1944 six Provincial governments i.e. U. P., Bombay, Punjab, Sind, Madras and Central Provinces notified simultaneously the floatation of 3 per cent. medium dated loans of the aggregate value of Rs. 13.28 crores repayable at par on the 15th August 1958. The object of the loans was to make advance payment of a part of the loans carrying a higher rate of interest taken from the Central Government to finance remunerative capital expenditure prior to the inauguration of Provincial Autonomy in April 1937.

Debt position of the Provinces—The debt owed by the provinces to the Centre has declined progressively throughout the period of war and particularly during 1943-44 and 1944-45 and stood at Rs. 66.48 crores at the end of 1944-45 as against Rs. 111.11 at the close of 1942-43. The increase of gross total debt at the end of 1944-45 is primarily accounted for large floating debt.

Subventions and Payments from the Centre

(In Crores of Rupees)

	Income-tax	Jute duty	Subventions	Other grants-in-aid	Total
1939-40	2.79	2.56	3.03		8.38
1940-41	4.16	1.85	3.03		9.04
1941-42	7.39	1.95	3.03		12.37
1942-43	10.90	1.40	2.75	0.01	15.06
1943-44	19.50	1.38	2.75	3.00	26.63
1944-45 (Revised)	26.56	1.40	1.70	7.00	36.66
1945-46 (Budget)	23.29	1.40	1.70		26.39

			(Revised)	(Budget estimate)
	1938-39	1943-44	1944-45	1945-46
Revenue	84,74	1,63,31	2,00,78	1,88,17
Expenditure .. .	85,74	1,53,85	2,08,05	1,91,74
Total Surpluses .. .	62	13,04	4,56	5,26
Total deficits .. .	1,64	3,58	11,83	8,83
Total net surplus (+) or deficit(-) ..	-1,02	+9,46	-7,27	-3,57

Provincial Government Treasury Bills

(In Thousand of Rupees)

	Amount tendered	Amount sold	Amount outstanding with the public
1941-42 (3 Provinces) ..	18,14,25	8,15,00	1,00,00
1942-43 (5 Provinces) ..	9,67,50	4,35,00	8,00
1943-44 (6 Provinces) ..	65,63,50	45,65,00	17,30,00
1944-45 (4 Provinces) ..	89,65,00	53,50,00	10,00,00

Provincial Government Budgets 1945-46

(In lakhs of Rupees)

	Accounts 1943-44		Revised Estimates 1944-45		Budget Estimates 1945-46	
Province	Rev.	Exp.	Rev.	Exp.	-Rev.	Exp.
Madras ..	29,84	29,84	40,37	40,20	41,25	40,45
Bombay ..	25,21	21,50	32,12	31,23	29,09	29,09
Bengal ..	23,72	26,75	35,66	47,01	28,79	37,39
U. P. ..	24,26	24,24	27,53	27,38	27,52	27,37
Punjab ..	21,20	16,84	22,49	21,10	21,17	19,25
Bihar ..	10,31	10,86	11,99	10,12	11,31	8,97
C. P. & Berar	8,56	8,55	9,49	9,45	9,48	9,48
N. W. F. P.	2,55	2,35	2,76	2,92	2,67	2,79
Orissa ..	2,56	2,54	3,13	3,11	2,94	3,03
Sind ..	9,94	5,63	9,43	9,40	8,57	8,54
Assam ..	5,16	4,45	5,81	6,13	5,38	5,40
Total ..	1,63,31	1,53,85	2,00,78	2,08,05	1,88,17	1,91,74

Debt Position of the Provinces

(In lakhs of Rs.)

1939-40	1,67,61	1942-43	1,70,26
1940-41	1,69,91	1943-44	1,96,28
1941-42	1,69,15	1944-45	2,15,49

INDIA'S WAR-TIME FINANCE

At the end of hostilities in Europe, India's financial burden of the war has risen to nearly six times the peace-time level. The total expenditure charged to revenue in 1938-39, the immediate pre-war year was Rs. 85.15 crores. For the year 1944-45 (revised) it amounted to Rs. 512.65 crores.

Taxation—Direct taxation has begun to play an increasingly important role in the tax structure of India. The total revenue derived during the war period is indicated in the following table :—

	In Crores of Rupees		In Crores of Rupees
1938-39	84.51	1942-43	176.88
1939-40	94.57	1943-44	249.95
1940-41	99.88	1944-45 (Revised)	356.88
1941-42	134.57		
		Total	1,112.73

The total revenue realised during the first six years of war amounts to Rs. 1,113 crores. Thus the aggregate revenue realised during the period has increased by about 100 per cent. over the figure calculated for it on the basis of the pre-war level:

Following are the *new taxation measures* :—

- (1) Introduction of Excess Profits Tax for the first time at the rate of 50 p.c. (1940-41).
- (2) Raising of sugar Excise and Import duties from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per cwt. in 1940-41 budget.
- (3) Raising the Petrol Tax, both Excise and customs from As. 10 to As. 12 per gallon (1940-41).
- (4) A supplementary budget passed in 1940 which provided for a 25 p.c. surcharge on all taxes on income, including Super-tax and Corporation tax and a limited increase in postal and telegraph rates and telephone rentals.
- (5) Raising of Excess Profits Tax from 50 per cent. to 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. in 1941-42 budget.
- (6) Central surcharge of 25 per cent. on Income-tax and super-tax was raised to 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. (1941-42).
- (7) Excise duty on matches were doubled (1941-42).

- (8) A new Excise duty of 10 p.c. *ad valorem* was introduced on pneumatic tyres and tubes (1941-42).
- (9) Alternative specific import duty on artificial silk yarn and thread was increased from 3 annas to 5 annas per lb. (1941-42).
- (10) Taxable minimum for Income-tax purposes was reduced from Rs. 2,000 per annum to Rs. 1,500 in 1942-43.
- (11) Surcharge on Income-tax was raised from $33\frac{1}{3}$ p.c. to certain scales upon incomes from Rs. 5,000 to 15,000 (1942-43).
- (12) Surcharge on the rate of super-tax was raised to 50 p.c. and at the same time Corporation tax was raised to $1\frac{1}{2}$ annas in the rupee (1942-43).
- (13) White E. P. T. was retained at $66\frac{2}{3}$ p.c. level, as an incentive to economy in business administration, government agreed to contribute an amount upto one-tenth of E. P. T. paid to a reserve for the requirement of industry after the war, provided the assessee deposited double the amount (1942-43).
- (14) Levy of an emergency surcharge of one-fifth on all customs imports duties with the exception of raw cotton, petrol and salt (1942-43).
- (15) Excise duties on Silver and Kerosene were equated to the new import duties and certain posts, telegraphs and telephone rates were further increased (1942-43).
- (16) Surcharge on Income-tax was raised on incomes above Rs. 5,000, the effect of the change was to impose a surcharge amounting uniformly to $66\frac{2}{3}$ p.c. over basic rates of Income-tax.
- (17) Surcharge was increased uniformly by 6 pies in the rupee on slabs of income between Rs. 25,000 and Rs. $3\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in case of super-tax (1943-44).
- (18) Corporation tax was also raised by half an anna to two annas in the Rupee (1943-44).
- (19) Two new Excise duties were introduced, one on tobacco and other on vegetable products.
- (20) To absorb surplus money, provision was made for advance payment of tax on incomes from which tax was not deducted at source (1944-45).
- (21) As regards E. P. T. the compulsory deposit proportion was increased to 19/64th of the tax, in cases of companies and 17/64th in other cases, which immobilised the entire excess profits remaining after E. P. T. had been paid thereon and income-tax and super-tax paid on the balance (1944-45).
- (22) Though relief was given to persons with income below Rs. 2,000 by raising the taxable minimum from Rs. 1,500 to Rs. 2,000, the surcharge was increased by two pies, by four pies on larger sums (1944-45).
- (23) Super-tax was further increased by half an anna in respect of the surcharge on slabs between Rs. 35,000 and Rs. 2 lakhs (1944-45).
- (24) Corporation tax was increased by one anna to three annas but a rebate of one anna in the rupee was given on so much of a

company's total income as was not distributed in individuals other than dividends payable at a fixed rate (1944-45).

- (25) Excise duty on tobacco was further increased so as to bring in an additional revenue of Rs. 10 crores (1944-45).
- (26) Three new excise duties were levied, namely on betel-nut, coffee and tea, at annas two a pound (1944-45).

1945-46 measures were as follows:—

- (27) The surcharge on slabs of income above Rs. 15,000 was increased by 3 pies.
- (28) Excise duty on the highest class of flue-cured tobacco was further raised at varying rates.
- (29) Import duty on unmanufactured tobacco was also raised.
- (30) There were a few changes in inland postal parcel rates and surcharge on trunk telephone calls and telegrams.
- (31) *Increase of Revenue from other sources*—In addition to the higher realisations from expanding revenues of new taxation, certain commercial departments of the government, like Railways and the Posts and Telegraphs have made substantial increased contribution to the general revenues, as the following table will show—

(In Crores of Rs.)

	Posts & Telegraphs		Rlys.		Posts & Telegraphs		Rlys.
1938-39 (Pre-war)	..	19	1-37	1942-43	..	4-52	20-13
1939-40 (War Period)	..	89	4-33	1943-44	..	9-03	37-64
1940-41	..	1-25	12-16	1944-45 (Revised)	..	9-32	32-00
1941-42	..	3-41	20-17				
				Total		28-44	126-43

Principal Sources of Revenue are given here in crores of Rupees during war period.

	<i>Customs</i>	<i>Central Corporation Excise</i>	<i>Corporation Tax</i>	<i>Income Tax</i>	<i>Sale</i>
1938-39	40-51	8-66	2-04	15-24	8-12
1939-40	45-88	6-52	2-38	16-79	10-67
1940-41	37-30	9-49	4-14	21-79	7-67
1941-42	37-89	13-15	11-66	32-40	9-20
1942-43	25-12	12-75	31-40	54-36	10-91
1943-44	26-57	24-94	51-28	77-86	8-34
1944-45	40-00	39-07	106-11	103-89	9-30

War-time Expenditure

The aggregate expenditure charged to revenue during the first six war years i.e., from 1939-40 to 1944-45 amounted to Rs. 1,598 crores as follows—

	<i>Crores of Rs.</i>		<i>Crores of Rs.</i>
1938-39 (Pre-war)	85.15	1942-43	289.05
1939-40	94.57	1943-44	439.85
1940-41	114.18	1944-45	512.65
1941-42	147.26		
		Total	1,597.56

On the basis of the expenditure for the pre-war year 1938-39, Rs. 1,598 crores represent a three-fold increase or an increase of Rs. 1,087 crores over that basic figure.

Lend-Lease and Reciprocal Aid

From 1942 India has been admitted to the benefit of the Lend-Lease of U.S.A., India received or is receiving from America under Lend-Lease, medical stores, ordnance stores, motor vehicles and spare parts, steel, provisions, lubricants, machine tools, machinery, electrical equipment, A.R.P. stores, radio sets, oil pipeline and machinery, ferro alloys, locomotives, dock and harbour equipment, aircraft parts, chemicals, scientific instruments etc.

India is giving Reciprocal Aid to American forces stationed in India. The goods and services to this aid broadly speaking fall under three heads—

(a) Reciprocal Aid to U. S. Forces in India in the shape of rations, clothing, ordnance and other stores, the construction of accommodation, airfields and connected works and provision of transportation, communications and maintenance facilities of various kinds.

(2) Reciprocal Aid to U. S. Shipping using Indian ports in the shape of port dues of all kinds, ship repairs etc.

(3) Available raw materials and available food stuffs such as tea, required by U. S. Government directly for war purposes.

The total amount of supplies and services made to India under Lend-Lease arrangement up to the end of 1944-45 is estimated at 515 crores. The amount of Reciprocal Aid which India has rendered to U.S.A. is about Rs. 124 crores from the beginning of the war up to the end of 1944-45.

Borrowing Programme

During the war period, the total deficit on Revenue account amounted to Rs. 477 crores which was mainly met by borrowing. Borrowing has played a large part in financing the war. The total borrowings from the beginning of the war to the end of January 1945 aggregated to Rs. 833 crores. The cheap money-policy helped the war-time borrowings on a 3 p.c. basis.

Different types of loans were floated such as : *short-term, medium dated and long-term loans* also 12 year National Savings Certificates.

At the end of 1944-45 the total Public Debt of India (interest-bearing obligations) amounted to Rs. 1,799 crores. This was covered by interest-yielding assets to the extent of Rs. 1,004 crores. It was further covered to the extent of Rs. 312 crores by cash and securities held on Treasury account. The balance of interest-bearing obligations not covered by any assets thus amounted to Rs. 483 crores.

Sterling debt position

One of the outstanding results of the war is the emergence of India as a creditor nation from the debtor position which she had long occupied previous to the war. This change was rendered possible by the acquisition of large sterling balances in the U. K. as a result, first, of her increased favourable balance of trade during wartime with the U. K. and other countries which is cleared through sterling; secondly, of the military expenditure incurred on behalf of H. M. G. and other United Nations for which payment is made in sterling; and thirdly, of a number of miscellaneous items expenditure made by the Government of India on behalf of H. M. G. which are refunded by sterling credits.

Sterling thus acquired soon accumulated at a rapid space and attended big proportions and it was resolved compulsory to repatriate the sterling debt. The debt amounted Rs. 396.50 crores before the war (1938-39); it is now barely 14 crores. In lieu of sterling debt, India has accumulated sterling balances which stood at Rs. 1,363 crores on March 30, 1945.

India's liquidation of external obligations in the form of sterling debt has greatly strengthened India's position. This has changed India's position from a debtor to a creditor country.

The sources of supply of sterling and its disposal up to the end of January, 1945, are shown in the following table :—

In Crores of Rs.

1. Sterling Assets held by Reserve Bank, August, 1939 ..	64
2. Sterling purchased by the Reserve Bank up to January, 1945	633
3. Sterling payments by H. M. G.	1,245
Total	1,942
4. Sterling amounts involved in repatriation	400
5. Other Sterling commitments	238
6. Sterling holdings of Reserve Bank at the end of January, 1945	1,304
Total	1,942

In the disposal of the sterling balances, the sterling debt repatriation scheme has, of course, played a notable part. A few other methods were also employed with the same object in view, the important ones being—

1. Funding the Railway annuities and redemption of Railway debenture stock .. £62 million
2. Purchase of Company managed Railways .. £28 "
3. Repayment of Chatfield Debt .. £ 8½ "
4. Conclusion of an agreement with H. M. G. regarding the allocation during the war of non-effective charges .. £15 "

INDIA'S WAR BURDEN

The Defence expenditure of India increased from Rs. 46.18 crores in 1938-39 to Rs. 397.23 crores in 1944-45 (Revised). This represents more than an eightfold increase. The yearly details are as follows—

India's Net Defence Expenditure

	Crores of Rs.		Crores of Rs.
1938-39 (Pre-war)	46.18	1942-43	214.62
1939-40	49.54	1943-44	358.40
1940-41	73.61	1944-45 (Revised)	397.23
1941-42	103.93		
		Total	1,197.33

The aggregate Defence expenditure amounted to Rs. 1,197 crores during European war period. The high-water-mark of Defence expenditure—viz., Rs. 397 crores was reached in 1944-45. The estimates for the year 1945-46 is placed at the slightly lower figure of Rs. 394 crores.

An innovation has been made from 1942-43 by dividing the Defence expenditure into two portions, namely revenue and capital. The capital portion consists of expenditure of a capital nature against most of which tangible and valuable assets are held. The revenue expenditure has been given above and the capital expenditure on defence is given below:—

Capital Expenditure on Defence

	Crores of Rs.		Crores of Rs.
1942-43	52.51	1944-45 (Revised)	59.41
1943-44	37.46		

H. M. G's Share in the Indian Defence Expenditure

The total defence expenditure—(up to 1944-45) of 1,198 crores as shown above is not the actual defence expenditure of India. It is much more than what is indicated in the above figure of 1,198 crores. The total actual expenditure amounted to Rs. 2,722 crores till the end of 1944-45, of which India's share was Rs. 1,198 crores and H. M. G's Rs. 1,374 crores. This substantial portion has been borne by His Majesty's Government under what is known as *Financial Settlement* concluded between the Government of India and His Majesty's Government in 1939 regarding the

allocation of total defence expenditure brought to account in India's books between the two Governments—

Share of Defence Expenditure

(In Crores of Rupees)

	Total Defence Expenditure	India's Share	H. M. G.'s Share
1939-40	54	50	4
1940-41	127	74	53
1941-42	298	104	194
1942-43	573	215	306
		+52*	
1943-44	774	358	378
		+38*	
1944-45	896	397	439
		+60*	
Total	2,722	1,348	1,374

INDIAN POSTS & TELEGRAPHS

Early History—The history of the Postal system of India goes back to antiquity. During the Mahomedan period, Sher Shah introduced mounted post in India. Emperor Akbar built Post houses at stages of ten miles on the principal trunk roads, but the system was disorganised with the fall of Mughal Empire.

A regular British Postal system was first introduced in 1766 by Lord Clive but this was used mainly for official purposes. During the administration of Warren Hastings, the posts were made available to the public for the first time and a regular organisation was set up in 1774. Act 17 of 1837 is the earliest enactment establishing a public postal service in India. The Act 17 of 1854 is a landmark in the history of postal system in India. In that year the entire department was placed under Director-General. Postage stamps were first introduced and uniform rates were fixed irrespective of the distance to be covered by letters. The basis of authority of the existing postal system in India is Act 6 of 1898.

The earliest telegraph line established in India was constructed in 1851 by Dr. W. O'Shaughnessy, a Professor of Chemistry in the Calcutta Medical College between Calcutta and Diamond Harbour and certain other places. Long distance lines were opened for traffic in 1855 under the Telegraph Act 24 of 1854.

* These represent Defence Capital expenditure.

Postal System—The Post and Telegraph Department of the Government of India is controlled by the Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs who is under the Department of Posts and Air of the Government of India. There are Deputy Director-Generals, Assistant Deputy Director-Generals.

India is divided into eight postal circles for administrative purposes, such as Bengal and Assam, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Central, Madras, Punjab and North-West Frontier, United Provinces and Sind and Baluchistan. First seven circles are in charge of Postmaster-General, while Sind and Baluchistan is in charge of a Director. Central circle includes roughly Central Provinces, Central India and Rajputana Agencies. The eight postal circles are divided into divisions, each in charge of a Superintendent of Post Offices or Railway Mail Service as the case may be. Superintendents have Inspectors under them.

The audit work of the Post Office is entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs.

Telegraph Department which was a separate organisation was partially amalgamated with Postal Department in 1912, but the complete amalgamation took place in 1914.

Telephones—Licenses were granted to a private company known as Oriental Telephone Co. for establishment of exchanges at Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi, Madras and Rangoon. All these lines however have been taken up by the Government in 1942. The first automatic telephone was installed in India at Simla with 700 lines in 1913.

For the first time in India, a *photo telegram* service between London and Bombay was opened in the last week of June, 1943. The pictures travel by wireless with the speed of light.

The *airgraph* service was started in February, 1942. The airgraph filming station and an airgraph section was opened in Calcutta on September 1, 1943.

Postal Traffic in Br. India

	1923-24	1927-28	1931-32	1935-36	1939-40	1942-43
No. of Post Offices	19,027	21,085	23,347	23,123	24,741	25,671
No. of Postal articles handled	1,156,322	1,286,776	1,118,168	1,125,548	1,255,475	1,356,356
Value of M.O. (Rs. lakhs)	71.20	79.88	70.13	71.73	83.34	116.03
Postal earnings* (Rs. lakhs)	6.79	7.45	7.37	7.91	8.32	12.04
Telegraph Line Mileage*	85,682	94,401	99,821	100,444	100,952	103,752

* Including Burma prior to 1937-38.

Letters (000)	Postcards (000)	Inland Telegrams (000)	Inland M.O. (000)
1939-40 .. 543,313	371,895	...	74,82,58
1940-41 .. 529,096	365,458	15,272	79,30,05
1941-42 .. 541,528	413,096	17,721	91,75,17
1942-43 .. 530,974	473,500	19,269	1,11,02,88
1943-44 .. 606,554	550,420	23,537	1,44,14,32
1944-45 .. 675,089	603,794	25,283	1,69,13,20

Number of Post Offices

1938-39 24,303	1942-43 25,671
1939-40 24,741	1943-44 25,841
1941-42 25,536	

Postal Landmarks

- 1830—First overland post between England and India established when steamer *Hugh Lindsay* made the first voyage from Bombay to Suez.
- 1840—P. & O. obtained charter for conveyance of mails between London to Suez for *en route* to India.
- 1871—Value-payable system was established.
- 1880—Money-order system introduced.
- 1851—First telegraph line opened between Calcutta and Diamond Harbour.
- 1885—Postal Savings Bank started.
- 1929—First Air-Mail landed at Karachi.
- 1942—Airgraph Service started (Feb. 2, 1942).
- 1943—Photo-Telegram Service introduced (3rd June, 1943).

INDIA IN COMPARISON & CONTRAST

Milk Consumption

Average daily consumption *per capita* of milk and milk products
(butter, ghee, etc.).

	oz.		
Sind	18.0	Madras	3.7
Punjab	15.2	Orissa	3.4
U. P.	7.0	Bengal	2.8
N. W. F. P.	6.8	C. P.	1.8
Bombay	5.5	Assam	1.3
Mysore	4.4	[Report on the Marketing of Milk 1943.]	
Bihar	4.2		
Hyderabad	3.9		

Average Daily Milk Consumption

	oz.
India (variously estimated) ..	58 to 10
New Zealand ..	56
Great Britain ..	41
U. S. A. ..	36

Rice Production

	lbs. per acre
India ..	800
China ..	1,400
U.S.A. ..	1,450
Egypt ..	2,000
Japan ..	2,300
Italy ..	3,000

Infant Mortality

*Under 1 year of
age—per 100
live births*

India ..	164
Japan ..	106
Great Britain ..	57
U. S. A. ..	55

Death-rate

	per 1000
India (1939) ..	24.3
U.S.A. (less than) ..	12
England ..	12

**India's per capita share of
Foreign Trade**

(Export and Import together)

	Rs.
India ..	10
United Kingdom ..	370
U.S.A. ..	113
Germany ..	100
Japan ..	70

[B. N. Adarker, Asst. Economic Adviser Govt. of India's broadcast on June 2, 1945.]

**Ratio of Doctors, Nurses &
Hospitals**

U. K.—1 Doctor to 1,000 people.
U.S.A.—1 Doctor to 750 to 800 people.
India—1 Doctor to 8,000 people.

Nurse

India—1 Nurse to 56,000 people.
U.K.—1 Nurse to 300 people.

Expectation of Life (Years)

	Male	Female
Canada ..	58.96	60.73
U. S. A. ..	60.60	64.50
Germany ..	59.86	62.81
U. K. ..	60.18	64.40
Australia ..	63.48	67.14
Japan ..	46.92	49.63
India ..	26.91	26.56

[Masani's Picture of a Plan.]

**Annual per capita Consumption
of Cotton Cloth**

Yds.

India ..	16
Argentina ..	38
Ceylon ..	11
Egypt ..	18
West Indies ..	22
S. Africa ..	23

[National Planning Committee's suggestion is 30 yds. per capita for India.]

Average Yield Per Cow

	lbs. per day
Indian Cow ..	Just over 2
Holland Cow ..	20.5
England ..	15
New Zealand ..	14

Birthrate		Shah & Khambata	
	per 1000	(1921-22)	67 0 0
India (nearly)	35	V. K. R. V. Rao	
U.S.A.	17.9	(1925-28)	77 14 6
Britain	15.0	Findlay Shirras (1921)	107 0 0
		Findlay (Shirras) (1922)	116 0 0
Reproductive Record			
	Increase of Population (P.C.)	Density of Population	
			per sq. mile
India (1870-1930)	30	All India	246
Europe Ex-Russia (1870-1930)	64	Br. India	341
Germany (1870-1930)	60	Bengal	779
Russia (1870-1930)	115	England & Wales	710
U.S.A. (1870-1930)	125	Japan	482
		Germany	373
		France	197
		U.S.A.	43

Wealth of India

According to		Average income per head	India's Highest in the World	
		Rs. A. P.		per 1000
D. Naoroji (1870)	20	0 0	Birthrate	35
Sir D. Barbour & Major E. Baring (1882)	27	0 0	Deathrate	24.3
Digby (1898-99)	18	9 0	Infant Mortality rate	240
Lord Curzon (1900)	30	0 0	Maternal Mortality	50 to 100
Digby (1900)	17	4 0	Dependant on Land	
Atkinson (1875)	25	0 0		per cent.
Atkinson (1895)	34	0 0	India	70
Wadia & Joshi (1913-14)	44	0 0	U.S.A.	22
			United Kingdom	8
			[Masani's Picture of a Plan.]	

PAKISTAN

The idea of partition of India was first suggested by the famous Muslim poet Sir Muhammad Iqbal who as a President of the All-India Muslim League Session at Allahabad in 1930 said: "I would like to see the Punjab, the North West Frontier Province, Sind and Baluchistan amalgamated into a single state. Self-Government within British Empire or without the British Empire and the formation of a consolidated North West Indian Moslem State appears to me to be the final destiny of the Moslems at least of North West India."

In 1933, at the time of Round Table Conference in England, a party of Muslim students in England, Mohd. Aslam Khan, Rahamat Ali, Sheikh

Mohd. Sadiq and Inayatullah Khan issued a leaflet entitled *Now or Never* in which they used the word *Pakistan* for the first time—"on behalf of our thirty million Muslim brethren who live in *Pakistan*—by which we mean the five northern units of India—viz., Punjab, North West Frontier Province, Afghan Province, Kashmir, Sind and Baluchistan." They protested against the federal constitution of India and demanded the creation of Moslem separate State. According to them the different letters of the word *Pakistan* stand for different territorial areas in the North-West. 'P' stands for Punjab, 'A' for Afgan Prvince, 'K' for Kashmir, 'S' for Sind and last letters 'Stan' means Baluchistan. Their *Pakistan* was ultimately changed into *Pakistan* to mean *land of the pure*. In 1935 Mr. Rahamat Ali styling himself as the founder of the Pakistan national movement illucidated his Pakistan scheme in another leaflet in which original Pakistan was extended beyond North-West of India, i.e. Bengal with its hinterland of Assam and State of Hyderabad.

A further proposal came from Dr. Syed Abdul Latif, a prominent Muslim leader of Hyderabad (Deccan), in 1938 and 1939. He contended that though India was not a "composite nation" and federal provision of the Act of 1935 was out of question, yet partition was not a necessary or a desirable alternative. India could and should remain united, provided its unity were based on a system of free and homogeneous nationalities, each possessing a geographical home which it could call its own. So Dr. Latiff outlined a provisional division of India into "cultural zones"—Four Moslem and eleven Hindu. The Indian States interspersed all over the country, may be distributed between the different zones in accordance with their natural affinities. Each Zone will form a homogeneous state with a highly decentralised form of government within but fitting along with similar states into an all-India Federation.

But this plan of Pakistan never received any tangible support from the leading Muslim political leaders of India at that time. All-India Muslim League or other Muslim political organisations did not give any official support to this partition scheme. Only so late as 1940, All-India Muslim League passed the famous resolution on Pakistan in its Lahore Session which runs as follows :—

Lahore Resolution 1940

"Resolved that it is the considered view of this Session of the All-India Muslim League that no constitutional plan would be workable in this country or acceptable to Muslims unless it is designed on the following basic principle, viz., that geographically contiguous units are demarcated into regions which should be constituted, with such territorial readjustments as may be necessary, that the areas in which the Muslims are numerically in a majority as in the North-Western and Eastern Zones of India should be grouped to constitute "Independent States" in which the constituent unit shall be autonomous sovereign.

That adequate, effective and mandatory safeguards should be speci-

fically provided in the constitution for minorities in these units and in these regions for the protection of their religious, cultural, economic, political, administrative and other rights and interests in consultation with them; and in other parts of India where Mussalmans are in a minority, adequate, effective and mandatory safeguards shall be specifically provided into the constitution for them and other minorities for the protection of their religious, cultural, economic, political, administrative and other rights and interests in consultation with them.

This session further authorises the Working Committee to frame a scheme of constitution in accordance with these basic principles, providing for the assumption finally by the respective regions of all powers such as defence, external affairs, communications, customs and such other matters as may be necessary."

Provinces of Pakistan

Out of the above declarations and statements of various exponents, we can now draw a picture of Pakistan—

1. Pakistan is composed of two zones, North-West and North-East, comprising six provinces namely Sind, Baluchistan, North-West Frontier Province, the Punjab, Bengal and Assam, subject to territorial adjustments that may be agreed upon, as indicated in the Lahore resolution (*vide Mr. Jinnah's letter to Mahatma Gandhi in Jinnah-Gandhi talks in 1940*).

2. The Sovereign State of Hindustan will consist of remaining six provinces of United Provinces, Bihar, Bombay, Madras, C.P. and Berar and Orissa. The form of Government will be really democratic popular government and will function with the will and sanction of the entire body of the people in Pakistan irrespective of caste, creed or colour." (*Vide Jinnah-Gandhi Talks*).

3. The scheme of Pakistan only applies to British India and not to Indian States (*vide Jinnah-Gandhi Talks*).

4. "Canada and United States live together. Why not Hindus and Muslims. I grant there may have to be many adjustments. It is possible that there will have to be exchange of populations, if it can be done on a purely voluntary basis. There will also doubtless have to be frontier adjustments where primarily Hindu and Muslim lands are contiguous to the Hindustan or Pakistan States as the case may be. All that can come, but first it is necessary to take the present provincial borders as the boundaries of the future Pakistan.

Our Pakistan Government will probably be a federal Government, modelled on the lines of autonomous provinces with the key power in matters of defence and foreign affairs, etc. at the centre. But that will be for the constitution-making body, our constitution-making body to decide (*Mr. Jinnah's Speech in Bombay 10th December, 1945*).

Analysis of the Scheme

(1) Under Pakistan scheme there will be about 44 million non-Muslims including 4 million Sikhs in Pakistan as against 59 million Muslims.

(2) In Hindustan there will be about 20 million Muslims as against about 151½ million Hindus.

(3) Hindus and Muslim population are so intermingled that except in parts of Punjab and Bengal, segregation of the two communities by territorial redistribution is impossible.

(4) In the Punjab while Muslims are in a majority in 17 districts, the non-Muslims outnumber the Muslims in 11.

(5) In Bengal out of 28 districts, Hindus are in a majority in 12 districts.

(6) Broadly speaking Eastern Punjab and Western Bengal including Calcutta are predominantly non-Muslim areas.

Alternative Schemes

In the recent years various attempts have been made by political leaders and also by the Congress to settle the Pakistan question. In 1944, first attempt was made by Mr. C. Rajagopalachariar, which proved abortive and a second notable attempt was made by Mahatma Gandhi in 1945. This attempt also proved a failure. We give below the two schemes—*Rajagopalachari's Formula of Pakistan.*

(1) Subject to the terms set out below as regards the constitution for free India, the Muslim League endorses Indian demand for Independence and will co-operate with the Congress in the formation of a provincial interim government for the transitional period.

(2) After the termination of war, a commission shall be appointed for demarcating contiguous districts in the north-west and the east of India, wherein the Muslim population is in absolute majority. In the areas thus demarcated, a plebiscite of all the inhabitants held on the basis of adult suffrage or other practicable franchise shall ultimately decide the issue of separation from Hindustan. If the majority decide in favour of forming a sovereign State separate from Hindustan, such decision shall be given effect to, without prejudice to the right of districts on the border to choose to join either State.

(3) It will be open to all parties to advocate their points of view before the plebiscite is held.

(4) In the event of separation, mutual agreements shall be entered into for safeguarding defence, commerce, and communications and for other essential purposes.

(5) Any transfer of population shall only be on an absolutely voluntary basis.

(6) These terms shall be binding only in case of transfer by Britain of full power and responsibility for the governance of India.

Mahatma Gandhi's Scheme.

Mahatma Gandhi in a letter to Mr. Jinnah on September 24, 1944 stated, "Differing from you on the general basis I can yet recommend to the Congress and the country the acceptance of the claim for separation contained in the Muslim League Resolution of Lahore of 1940 on my basis" and on the following terms—

The areas should be demarcated by a Commission approved by the

Congress and the League. The wishes of the inhabitants of the areas demarcated should be ascertained through the votes of the adult population of the areas or through some equivalent method.

If the vote is in the favour of separation, it shall be agreed that these areas shall form a separate state as soon as possible after India is free from foreign domination and can therefore be constituted into two sovereign independent states. There shall be a treaty of separation which should also provide for the efficient and satisfactory administration of Foreign Affairs, Defence, Internal Communications, Customs, Commerce and the like, which must necessarily continue to be the matters of common interest between the contracting parties.

The treaty shall also contain terms for safeguarding the rights of minorities in the two states.

Immediately on the acceptance of this agreement by the Congress and the League, the two shall decide upon a common course of action for the attainment of independence of India.

The League shall however be free to remain out of any direct action to which the Congress may resort and in which the League may not be willing to participate.

The above two schemes of Pakistan by C. Rajagopalachariar and Mahatma Gandhi were rejected by Mr. M. A. Jinnah, the President of the All-India Muslim League.

Recent Elections and Pakistan

All-India Muslim League, which no doubt represents the largest body of Muslims in India fought the recent election in 1945-46 on the Pakistan issue. In the Central Assembly elections, the League swept the polls against all opponents, Muslim or otherwise. The Provincial election results which are now known to us tell a different story. The League claim to include Assam within Pakistan area vanished where after recent election the Congress formed an absolute majority and ousted the League Coalition Ministry which survived so long due to certain combination of circumstances.

In Sind which is a prominent Pakistan area where about 85 p.c. of the population are Muslims, the Muslim League received another rude shock. Out of 34 Muslim seats, they could secured 27 seats against 22 by Congress, 4 by Nationalist Muslims and 4 by Mr. Syed's Party.

Though the League has formed Ministry in this province its stability is so thin that its replacement is only a question of time.

In the Punjab, which is considered the bulwork of Pakistan where Muslim League though forming the largest single party, could not form Ministry. The Coalition Party consisting of Unionists, Congress and Akali Party has formed stable Ministry.

In North-West Frontier Province, Muslim League received greatest shock. Here the Muslim population is almost above 90 p.c. But overwhelming Muslim voters have voted for the Congress and thence a stable Congress minority is now functioning there.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

1. *International Labour Conference*, held at Philadelphia in April 1944, adopted a social charter of rights for the common man embodying the right to freedom of association and collective bargaining and minimum safeguards for employment. The Conference re-affirmed that labour is not a commodity; that freedom of expression and association are essential to sustain progress; that poverty constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere and that accordingly war against want equally requires continuous and concerted international effort.

2. *International Civil Aviation Conference*, held at Chicago, in Nov.-Dec. 1944, devoted itself to the questions such as the setting up of an International Convention and an interim agreement for the regulation of world air traffic and established an Interim Council. Two agreements were drawn up, known as (i) *International Air Transit Agreement* for the grant of freedom of flight across territory of a State and freedom of landing for non-traffic purposes, (ii) *International Air Transport Agreement* for the grant of commercial freedom.

3. *Dumbarton Oaks Conference*, held at Dumbarton Oaks, Washington, in October 1944, recognised the necessity of establishing at the earliest possible date a general international organisation based on the sovereign equality of all peace-loving States. Tentative decisions on the question of world security was taken here relating to the establishment of a (1) *General Assembly* for all peace-loving nations which would make recommendations for maintaining world peace and security. (2) *A Security Council* which would have full responsibility for determining and taking action to maintain peace through pacific, economic or military means. The Council would have at its disposal air, sea and land forces contributed by member nations of the Assembly. (3) *An Economic and Social Council* to deal with humanitarian aspects of international relations. (4) *An International Court of Justice* to handle justifiable relations.

4. *Yalta Conference* was held in Crimea in February 1945, at which it was decided to call a representative international conference of United Nations at San Francisco to give shape to the Dumbarton Oaks decisions. Yalta Conference also dealt with problems arising out of implications of Germany's unconditional surrender, occupation of the enemy territory, re-settlement of liberated areas and reparations of Germany.

5. *International Conference on Pacific Relations at Hot Springs, U.S.A.*, held in January 1945, discussed the economic and political future of territories in the Pacific how to treat Japan after her defeat and considered the Pacific situation from an overall economic and political point of view.

6. *World Trade Union Congress*, met in London in February 1945 at which proposals for setting up a new World Trade Union Organisation were debated.

7. *San Francisco Conference* which met in May 1945, adopted a charter proposing the setting up of an international organisation known

as the United Nations' Organisation primarily to safeguard peace and assure world security. This is known as U.N.O.

8. *United Nations Food Conference*, held at Quebec in 1945. The conference consisting of the representatives of 30 countries signed the constitution of the Food and Agriculture Organisation (F.A.O.) including India; the main purpose of which is to consolidate peace by fostering food production, by bringing scientific technique to the service of mankind and by saving the people in the war-devastated areas and other countries whose economy has suffered a serious jolt due to the repercussions of the war.

The F.A.O. is to undertake a complete world survey of production, consumption and international trade in the major agricultural products, so that information about surpluses is made available and international trade regulated.

U.N.O.—The United Nations Charter brought forth U.N.O. which held its first sitting in America. It is two documents in one; in part a declaration defining principles and purposes, and in part a constitution defining method and machinery.

(a) The purposes are four-fold :—

- (i) to maintain international peace and security ;
- (ii) to develop friendly relations among nations ;
- (iii) to achieve international co-operation in the solution of economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems, and
- (iv) to provide an international centre for the attainment of those ends.

(b) Its principles or obligations are six-fold :—

United Nations undertake :—

- (i) to recognise sovereign equality of member nations ;
- (ii) to fulfil the purposes of the Charter in all good faith as basis for rights and privileges of membership.
- (iii) to settle all disputes by peaceful means ;
- (iv) not to threaten or use force against the independence and territorial integrity of any other nation ;
- (v) to assist the United Nations Organisation in any action it may take in accordance with the Charter, and not to assist any State against which the organisation takes preventive or enforcement action ;
- (vi) to acknowledge, on the part of the members responsible for territories under their control, that the interests of inhabitants are paramount and that they have a sacred trust to promote their well-being.

These principles and purposes run through the Articles of the Charter. Machinery for the fulfilment of declarations is also provided. These are four principal instruments by which the principles and purposes of the Charter are fulfilled :—

(a) *General Assembly*—forum of discussion.

(b) *Security Council*—police with force at its back. o

(c) *Economic or Social Council*—clearing house or General Staff on economic and social questions, the basis of so much international trouble.

(d) *International Court of Justice*—which explains itself.

In these four instruments are discussion, enforcement, investigation and research, and justice.

Of these, the Security Council, a smaller body of eleven members of whom the Big Five, namely the U.S.A., Russia, Britain, China and France, are permanent members, the rest being elected by the Assembly is the most important. It is empowered to take all measures to preserve the peace of the world including persuasion, negotiation, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, regional agreements or economic sanctions, the interruption of communications and military measures.

This Charter differs from the League of Nations principally in (1) the membership of U.S.A. and Russia; (2) the abolition of the unanimity rule; (3) obligation to provide armed forces by all members; and (4) powers of the Security Council. The organisation provides for settlement of disputes by regional arrangements, and for arrangements, and for amendments to the Charter. Above all the Charter has to fight against ignorance, cynicism and power politics.

9. *United Nation's Monetary and Financial Conference* was held at Brettonwoods (U.S.A.) in July 1944, at which a concrete programme for international monetary and financial co-operation was worked out. This included Articles of Agreement representing the consensus of conclusions of the experts of the forty-four nations represented in the conference, relating to an *International Monetary Fund* and an *International Bank for Reconstruction and Development*. A main object of the International Monetary Fund is to provide member countries with short-term resources (based on the quotas allotted to each country) to enable them to tide over the temporary deficits in their balances of payments and thereby to promote the stability of exchange which is essential to the balanced growth of international trade. The aggregate of all members' quotas in the Fund will be composed of gold, member countries' currencies and securities totalling \$ 8.8 billion in all, of which India's quota is \$ 0.4 billion. The quota is a measure of a country's subscription as well as of its borrowing rights, voting rights and share in the management. The purpose of the International Bank is to promote the flow of long-term international capital to assist in the reconstruction of economic life, the reconversion of productive resources and the economic development of member countries; the Bank may also thus contribute to long-term equilibrium in international balances of payments.

U.N.R.R.A.—This is known as United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration which met in U.S.A. on Nov. 9, 1943. The U.N.R.R.A. has before it a three-fold task—(1) to build up adequate reservoirs of foodstuffs and other supplies, (2) to assure an equitable and efficient distribution among liberated countries, (3) to carry on its operations in such

a manner as to stimulate local self-help and a revival of production in these countries, so ending as quickly as possible the expense of relief.

The objective of U.N.R.R.A. is to "help people to help themselves" and to see that relief works swiftly and smoothly and that rehabilitation measures are so devised as to enable people of liberated countries to begin their own reconstruction at the earliest possible moment.

10. *International Maritime Conference*, held at Copenhagen in Nov. 1945. It adopted the principle of equal wage for equal work for maritime labour. The decisions of the conference were however of a purely preparatory nature. It also discussed several initial problems relating to the working conditions and welfare of seamen. The most important problems discussed: (1) Wages, hour of work, (2) social insurance, (3) bond and catering on board ship, (4) international minimum wage for seamen.

WAR-TIME SCIENTIFIC INVENTIONS

1. *Radar*—By an ingenious application of the principle of radio, enemy planes and submarines are located long before they reach their objectives and are attacked. It is a British invention.

2. *Polythene and Silicones* were discovered by British and American scientists and were used intensively in defence of telephone, telegram and submarine cable systems, in aeroplanes, in electrical industry and other purposes. Silicone bids fair to revolutionise the electrical industry.

3. *Synthetic rubber*—a product of American and German scientists.

4. *New improvements in internal combustion engine*.

5. *Secret bomb sight and Octave gasoline*—invented in America.

6. *New processes for extraction of magnesium from sea water and of aluminium from clay*.

7. *Discovery of new alloys of magnesium and aluminium called magaluminum*.

8.. *Flame-throwers*.

9. *V1 and V2 (German)*.

10. *Perfection of blood transfusion methods*.

11. *Manufacture of dry plasma*.

12. *Discovery of Penicillin*.

13. *Dehydration of foods*.

14. *Atomic Bomb* by harnessing atomic energy of matter for destructive purposes.

15. *Discovery of DDT multipurpose insecticide*—a powerful insecticide to protect the troops against mosquito and lice. Shirts impregnated with DDT protect the wearer against lice for at least two months even after three or four launderings. This is an epic of achievements against mosquito and lice.

16. *Jet propulsion*.

17. *Prefabricated Portable Harbour*.

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18. *Bailey Bridge*—used to cross rivers and defiles where other bridges have been destroyed. All that it needs is a solid foundation at each end and usually a retreating enemy can't take the necessary time to destroy bridge abutments completely. It can be bolted together and is a matter of hours and is strong enough to support tanks.

19. *Bulldozer*—This is an American invention. It is light or medium tank with a blade on the front of it and hydraulic cylinders to raise or lower the blades. It is first vehicle of the landing craft. Trailing behind it in the shallow water is the sled-like contraption "with three rolls of landing mats on it. The tank-dozer unrolls these lengths of mat as it moves forward, smoothing the sand. Clattering up the beach behind it, on the temporary roadway come the guns and trucks and other wheeled vehicles.

20. *Electron microscope*.

Some German Inventions

German war-time developments in aircraft, aero-engines, aircraft armament, jet and rocket propulsion units and engine "power boosting" system have been announced on September 12, 1945 by Technical experts of British Air Ministry and Air Craft production, U.S. Office of Information on August 27, 1945 and by British and American Press on June 29, 1943.

The Luftwaffe—was the first air force to be given a *jet-propelled* fighter, *heavy bomber* and *Dive Bomber*. At the time of the German collapse, 19 types of jet aircraft were being developed as well as six rocket-propelled types. One variety of jet-fighter (Focke-Wulf Ta 183) had a maximum speed of 590 m.p.h. and three hours endurance. Another Volksjager, a jet-fighter with a speed of 522 m.p.h. with a explosive cartridge arrangement whereby the pilot could be shot out through cock-pit opening in emergency. Another Rocket Fighter, developing a thrust of over 3,600 lb. at 40,000 ft. about 10 p.c. greater than at sea level.

Other types included a Helicopter (first flown in 1940) with an all up weight of 8,000 lbs. and capable of carrying 7,760 lbs. load; the Fa 330, an unpowered Rotorkite "towed" by U-boats for observation purposes; a six-engined Blohm and Voss flying boat with a 200 ft. wing span weighing 198,000 lbs.; a four-engined Arado troop-carrier with 11 pairs of wheels which could be lowered for loading or moving over rough grounds.

Aircraft engines included a Jet-unit delivering 14,000 h.p. to the air-screw at 500 m.p.h. and the Junkers *Jumo* turbo-jet unit giving a speed of 560 m.p.h. at 36,000 ft. The speed of some machines was increased in injecting nitrous oxide (laughing gas) into the super-charger. Fuels employed for rocket propulsion were concentrated Hydrogen Peroxide. Infra-red Search-lights were used to blind the tank crews.

Most notable work was on submarines and torpedoes—discoveries included a torpedo with an 80-mile range and an acoustic head with "listened" for its target; controlled torpedoes which would follow zig-zaging ships; a torpedo carried by a glider released from an aircraft

which would thus avoid ships A.-A. fire; a jet-propelled submarine with a submerged speed of 25 knots (going into production) and one with a submerged speed of 15 knots (in production).

The above inventions were in all shapes from pre-development to full production. There were also many "freak" weapons actually in use—(1) a 200-ton tank named "Mouse"; a rifle with a barrel carving at right angles with which to shoot round corners; a 210 m.m. Mortar; and a 32-inch gun giving a 16,540-lb. projectile used at the siege of Sevastopole; a powerful form of V2 was designed to be fired from a submerged submarine continuing on its course after breaking the surface of water. Another freak weapon developed was a fantastic project for setting up an enormous platform above the earth surface and mounting there on a mirror measuring two miles square with which it might be possible to harness the sun's rays to destroy whole nation at will—this was reported by Col. John A. Keck; the Chief of the Enemy Technical Intelligence Branch SHAEF).

POST-WAR PLANS

GOVERNMENT'S 15-YEAR RECONSTRUCTION PLAN FOR INDIA

An all-India plan for a period of 15 years except in certain subjects requiring a longer period, has been prepared by the Government of India. The report emphasises the need for planning for India as a whole, for it is clear that all the provinces and States will benefit by measures taken for the development of the country as a whole. The report proceeds on the basis of the existing constitution.

The ultimate object of all planning must be to raise the standard of living of the people as a whole and to provide employment for all. To this end, the purchasing power of the people must be raised by increasing the productivity of labour and by a simultaneous reorganisation and development of agriculture, industry and commerce and a big extension of Social Services.

Short and Long-term Objectives—The main objectives of planning are both short-term and long-term. Short-term projects mean: (1) the resettlement and re-employment of defence service personnel and of labour displaced from war industry, military works, etc.; (2) the orderly disposal of surplus military stores and equipment, land and buildings; (3) the conversion of industry from war to peace; (4) the removal or adjustment of controls to suit peace conditions.

Long-term projects mean: (1) the development of electric power as the basis of industrial development and to a lesser extent of agricultural development, pump irrigation and rural industry; (2) the development of industry with special reference to the production of capital goods and the consumer goods required by the bulk of the population, and also the maintenance and development of small-scale and cottage industries; (3) the

development of road communications and transport service on a comprehensive scale, specially in rural areas; (4) the improvement of agriculture and with it the development of irrigation, anti-erosion measures, land reclamation, etc.

The foundation of improved education, health and housing must be laid at the same time because they are pre-requisite for development of industry, agriculture, etc.

Expenditure—The Government of India have estimated that a round figure of Rs. 1,000 crores might be necessary for first five-year period exclusive of loans raised for industrial development. Approximately half of the total will consist Central Revenue surpluses and the remainder will come from Central and Provincial loans. Road, irrigation and electrical development is to be met by public loans, industrial development with some exceptions by private enterprise.

Technicians—For this post-war development a large staff with a high degree of technical training will be essential. So steps will be taken for— (a) the provision of scholarship and studentships, both in India as well as overseas, for the training of scientists, technicians, educationists, doctors, administrators, etc.; (b) the expansion of existing institutions and provision for additional institutions for training in all branches of science, engineering, agriculture, veterinary, medical, forestry, etc.

Industrial Development—Agriculture and industry should develop side by side. Though agriculture is and will remain India's primary industry, yet the present unbalanced economy has to be rectified by an intensive development of the country's industries. Power which is the basis of all industrial development should have priority over others. Important capital goods industries like iron and steel industry, heavy engineering industry, machine-tool industry, heavy chemical industry and fertilisers should have preference in the beginning over consumption goods industries. The report also suggests the possibility of marrying cottage production with organised industry.

Rural and Agricultural Development—The measures must include improved methods of agriculture, better livestock, organised marketing, the relief of indebtedness, anti-erosion, irrigation and reclamation measures, and reforms in land tenure and laws of inheritance. The present agricultural population being too large for the land available, a land development organisation should be set up in each province to carry out on a comprehensive scale various measures to bring new land under cultivation and increase the output from existing cultivation.

1. *Post-War Educational Development*—The final scheme of the Central Advisory Board of Education for post-war educational development in India on the basis of Sargent Report has been issued.

The scheme, based on the memorandum prepared by Mr. John Sargent, Educational Adviser to the Government of India, aims at providing all children of India with a certain basis education and enabling those who show promise to pass on to High Schools, Universities and other institutions for further education. It also meets the requirements of the country

for technical education side by side with practical training. The scheme deals with various stages of school and University education, technical commercial, art and adult education; the problem of the training of teachers; the health of school children; the education of the handicapped; and recreative and social activities.

Compulsion—Compulsion, according to the scheme, will be applied between the ages of 6 and 14. Primary and middle school education will be free. Entry to high schools will be on a selective basis: generally those pupils will be admitted who show promise of taking full advantage of the education provided. High schools will be of two main types, academic and technical. The objective of both will be to provide a good all-round education combined with some preparation in the later stages for the careers which pupils will enter on leaving schools.

In the sphere of university education, it is suggested that a committee should co-ordinate the activities of the various universities, in order to avoid overlapping and to maintain standards and should also allocate any grants provided by the Central Government in aid of substantial new developments.

The scheme lays special emphasis on the quality of teachers at every stage of national education, and recommends proposals for improving both recruitment and training.

40-Year Scheme—The scheme is spread over 40 years. During the first five-year or the preparatory period, the bulk of the expenditure will be on organising personnel, experiment and research and in establishing colleges and schools for training teachers of different types. Thereafter, the incidence of expenditure will depend largely on the expansion of the high school system. It is estimated that the increased cost of education will be Rs. 10 crores in the first five years, Rs. 23 crores in the tenth year, and Rs. 61 crores in the 20th year. The peak of expenditure on the scheme will be reached about the 40th year when the approximate incidence of the increased cost of education Rs. 312 crores gross or Rs. 277 crores net per annum.

2. Public Health Plan—A comprehensive and rational public health and medical services policy for the country as a whole has just been issued by Bhore Committee. This Committee of All India Health Survey and Development suggests a Rs. 1,000 crore expenditure over next 10 years. Personal health services including directional organisation, professional education and other items are estimated to cost Rs. 163 crores in the first five years and Rs. 200 crores in the succeeding five years. The recurring annual expenditure in the first five years is estimated at Rs. 40 crores and Rs. 62 crores in the second five year period. The annual per capita expenditure will be Rs. 1-3-11 during the first five year period and Rs. 2-6-6 during the next. The Committee aims at a target of one doctor for every 2,000 citizens. The target is to be reached in 1971.

3. Post-War Forest Plan—A post-war plan for forestry to increase the area under forest to about 20 to 25 p.c. of land in each province and State has been drawn by the Inspector-General of Forests for the con-

sideration of the Reconstruction Committee on Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries.

The plan visualises the creation of 100,000 square miles of forests in British India. At present only 106,000 square miles of land is dedicated to forests which something like 13 p.c. of total areas of British India.

4. **Agriculture and Animal Husbandry**—A Committee of Imperial Council of Agricultural Research has prepared a plan, for the development of agriculture and animal husbandry which aims at increasing the output of agriculture by 50 per cent. in 10 years and ultimately by 100 per cent. in 15 years at a capital expenditure of roughly a thousand crores over the latter period with a recurring annual expenditure of Rs. 25 crores.

5. **The development of road communications** will be pursued vigorously, so as to secure a uniform and co-ordinated road system over the whole country. A road plan which aims at providing 400,000 miles of roads and truckways at a cost of Rs. 450 crores has been prepared. Government of India has undertaken, subject to the vote legislature to accept liability for construction and maintenance of a system of main trunk roads to be known as *National Highways*.

6. **Inland water transport, postal services and civil aviation** facilities will be extended considerably.

7. **Development of Indian shipping**—an increased share of the coastal trade, a substantial share in the near trade, a fair share in the Eastern trade and a fair share also in the trade between India and United Kingdom, Continent of Europe and North America should be aimed at.

8. **Electrical Power Plan**—A Central Technical Power Board has been formed, the object of which is to regulate and develop the production of electrical power and to advise various provinces and States who may require their assistance.

9. **Irrigation & Waterways Plan**—An Irrigation & Waterways Board is under preparation for regulating the development of irrigation, waterways and inland navigation throughout India. A number of very important irrigation-cum-hydro projects are proposed to be taken up.

10. **Railway Plan**—The basic plan consists, in the first place of providing for rehabilitation, repair and replacement of workshop machinery, locomotives, wagons, coaches, track and other equipment subjected to wear. It is proposed to establish workshops for the manufacture of locomotives. Arrangements are being made for the manufactures of boilers in India.

A construction of 5,000 miles are to be undertaken within next few years. The plan provides for an annual programme of 500 miles over a period of 10 years, at a total cost of approximately Rs. 100 crores.

Annual replacements spread over a number of years are contemplated. Certain kinds of operating movements, such as doubling of track, additions and alterations to stations and yards, road over bridges etc. have been planned.

It is proposed to provide more conveniences and better amenities for third class passengers both in trains and at stations. A reduction in the number of classes on railways is contemplated.

A number of Staff Welfare measures is contemplated to improve efficiency and to meet social needs of railway employees.

Other aspects of the basic plan are: absorption of demobilised army personnel in railway services, improved service for goods, parcels and passenger traffic; re-grouping of railways; extension of activities of railways to other transport services like roads, air, etc. and evolution of a new rates structure in keeping with post-war requirements.

Costs—The Basic Plan will require an expenditure of Rs. 319 crores in the first seven years of the post-war period, details being as under—Rehabilitation Rs. 125 crores, operative improvements Rs. 45 crores, staff welfare Rs. 48 crores, provision of third class amenities Rs. 45 crores, construction of new lines Rs. 56 crores.

GANDHIAN CONSTITUTION FOR FREE INDIA

The Gandhian Constitution consists of two parts. The first part lays down the basic principles and ideals of a good and stable constitution. It is emphasized that if democracy is to survive it must go the Gandhian way which upholds the ideal of more or less self-sufficient and self-governing rural republic enjoying the maximum local autonomy. The resuscitation of village communities or panchayats and building up of the administrative system from the bottom will usher in true democracy and economic equality.

Keynotes

Non-violence and decentralization are the keynotes of the Gandhian Constitution. Decentralised democracy is strongly advocated on grounds of balanced economy, human and cultural values, sociological well-being, æsthetic sense, national defence and international harmony. It is pointed out that such decentralized but well co-ordinated democracy instead of being medieval will present to the world a model constitution for the new order.

While enumerating the fundamental rights, special stress is laid on fullest protection of the so-called minorities and the backward classes, spheres of religion, culture, language, script and social customs.

According to the Gandhian Constitution the village should be the basic unit of administration in Free India. Every village shall elect on the basis of universal adult franchise a panchayat which will have very wide and comprehensive functions relating to education, protection, recreation, agriculture, industries, trade, commerce, sanitation, medical relief, justice, finance and taxation.

To co-ordinate the social, economic, political and cultural activities of the villages there shall be taluka and district panchayats whose functions will be mostly advisory. Presidents of the district panchayats will form the provincial panchayat which shall be unicameral.

The present provincial boundaries will have to be run on a linguistic basis. There will usually be complete separation of functions between the legislature and the executive. The provincial panchayats shall appoint ministers who will not be members of the panchayat. The ministers will represent the best talent of the province irrespective of party or communal

considerations. Presidents of the provincial panchayats shall constitute the all-India Panchayat which shall be the unicameral legislature of Free India.

Indian States

Indian States joining the all-India Federation or the panchayat shall also have the right to send to the panchayat the elected representatives but not the nominated puppets of the princes.

Consistent with the basic principle of maximum decentralization of political and economic power the Centre shall exercise only the following functions: Defence, economic co-ordination, management of key industries, regulation of currency, customs and international trade and foreign policy.

The residuary powers shall vest in the federating units. The All-India Panchayat shall appoint ministers who shall not be members of the Panchayat. The ministers shall represent the best talent of nations without party or communal considerations.

The All-India Panchayat shall be a voluntary federation of provinces and States with the largest measure of local self-government. Proceedings of the provincial panchayats shall be conducted in the territorial languages. The proceedings of the All-India Panchayat shall be in Hindusthani.

Judicial System

The judicial system will have to be radically overhauled by granting to the village panchayats extensive civil and criminal powers. Appeals will be heard by the district and the High Courts in only very special cases. The Supreme Court of India will be the highest and the final legal authority. The Indian law is complex and cumbersome; it promotes corruption and dishonesty. It will, therefore, have to be drastically revised. Justice will be rendered cheap, speedy, simple and effective.

Elections

The system of elections advocated is direct in the villages and indirect in the taluka, district, Province and All-India Panchayats.

The ancient system of panels and lots is also commended. Joint electorates on the basis of adult franchise will be the basis of all the elections.

The Indian States are described as double-edged weapons in the hands of the British Government. They are glorified vassals of the Crown. Their treaties with the Paramount Power are not worth the paper on which they are preserved. The princes are advised to read the signs of the times and make common cause with the people of India. Instead of being dictators under the shadow of the British bayonet, the States should join the All-India Panchayat because India is essentially one and indivisible.

State Boundaries

The existing boundaries of the States will also have to be redrawn on a more scientific basis.

Although Mahatma Gandhi is a firm believer in non-violence, he is practical enough to concede that Free India may require a defence force. But he conceives of defence mainly in the nature of a national organization of guardians which will be very different from the present police force. The

guardians shall be reformers and believers in non-violence. The All-India Panchayat will have complete control over the defence forces.

Minorities and Pakistan

The demand for Pakistan is thoroughly impractical, irrational and undesirable. The non-violent state of Mahatma Gandhi's conception will not be confronted with the problem of minorities at all because the essence of non-violence is tolerance and deep regard for one another's rights. The division of India into two or more separate States will mean virtual national suicide. The right solution of the so-called minority problem will be an unequivocal declaration of the fundamental rights of all citizens of Free India without any distinctions of caste, creed, sex, religion, colour and socio-economic status. The maximum local autonomy in the economic, social, cultural and political spheres, joint electorates with reservation of seats and the right to contest additional seats, adult franchise and a fair share for all communities in the public services should solve the communal problem for all time. In fact when India arrives at the fully developed non-violent stage there will be no minorities having a feeling of separateness or inferiority.

Free India's Foreign Policy

Free India's foreign policy has been chalked out in clean terms. India will have no territorial designs on neighbouring countries nor will she allow other countries to exploit her. She would stand for full freedom to all the nations of the world, big or small.

The process of devolution or decentralization may be gradual. We should not hesitate to make our villages the living centres of public administration. Under the Gandhian Constitution the villages will rise to their full stature and become once again bright models of genuine and lasting democracy.

INDIAN FAMINE COMMISSION'S REPORT

State's Responsibility to Provide Food for All

The State should recognise its ultimate responsibility to provide food for all. Within the last 100 years Governments in India have accepted the duty to prevent widespread death from famine but the further obligation of taking every possible step not only to prevent starvation, but to improve nutrition and create a healthy and vigorous population has not yet been fully recognised and accepted. This is the main principle affirmed by the Famine Inquiry Commission.

Short Term Aspect of Problem

Dealing with the short term aspects of the Indian food problem, the Report states that before the war India was not self-sufficient in cereals; a small exportable surplus of wheat was offset by large imports of rice.

Certain Provinces, mainly the Punjab, C.P. and Berar, Sind, Orissa and Assam, were net exporters of cereals, while others, *i.e.* Bengal, Bihar, U.P., Madras, Bombay and N.W.F.P., were net importers. The Report describes the effects of the loss of imports from Burma and seasonal conditions on the supply position in 1943 and explains the food problems which faced Provincial and Indian State administrations and the measures taken to deal with them.

"Grow More Food" Campaign

The Commission do not consider the results achieved by the "Grow More Food" campaign during the two years 1942-44 to have been spectacular as the main requisites for a large increase in agricultural production were absent, namely, an improved water supply and an increase in the supply and use of manures and fertilizers. The need for laying down a clear agricultural policy and providing administrative machinery for its execution is emphasised, and it is recommended that the "Grow More Food" campaign should be continued with undiminished vigour.

Food Administration During the War

Reviewing the system of procurement and distribution in force in different provinces of India and the special problems presented by certain aspects of the prevailing system, the Commission express the view that the only satisfactory system of procurement and distribution is that of complete monopoly. They recommend that administrations should aim at the introduction of complete monopoly schemes, but hold that such schemes are not a practical proposition in Bengal, Bihar and the permanently settled areas of Orissa and Assam, and in areas enjoying an assured surplus, schemes of full monopoly are unnecessary.

Present Level of Food Grain Prices

On the general level of prices of foodgrains in India, the Commission's view is that they are high compared with the world level, but so long as supply of consumer goods does not become more plentiful and cheaper and imports of rice are not once again available, the present policy to hold prices at about their present levels is the correct course to follow.

Need for Imports

The Commission consider that India is still in need of imports owing to the growth of population, a higher *per capita* consumption by the poorer classes of population and the requirements of Defence Services, and emphasises the need for building a Central reserve of 500,000 tons of foodgrains from imported wheat.

Relaxation of Food Control Measures

The return to normal conditions, states the Report, must be a gradual, regulated and co-ordinated process; otherwise the chaotic prices and supply conditions prevailing in the country in 1942-43 might recur.

Food Administration in the Transition Period

The organisation of food administration during the transition period should be designed not with a view to securing the most expeditious return to pre-war conditions but so that it can evolve into a system of regulation of prices in normal times. The Commission visualise the transition period as commencing with the arrival of the first shipments of rice from Burma in appreciable quantities. Its duration will depend on factors, external and internal; but it may probably last until 1951-52.

First Stage of Transition

During the first stage of this period, it should be possible to secure the diminution and eventual elimination of wide price disparities existing in different parts of the country. The Commission consider that a price level of 240% of the average of the five years ending 1938-39 broadly represents the target price level to be pursued, at the end of the first stage of the transition period. Concurrently with a reduction of prices, more stringent forms of food controls such as total procurement, levy schemes (including rationing in rural areas) and other systems of monopoly purchases from the producer should be withdrawn. In the opinion of the Commission, by the end of the first stage of the transition, the functions performed by the Central Government would continue to be performed without any alteration. The Basic Plan would continue to be in operation, trade would be operating under a licence, procurement schemes would be based on purchases from the local trade and only the large cities would be subject to rationing.

Second Stage of Transition

During the second stage of transition, the main problem would be the co-ordinated removal of cordons round Provinces and States and the retransfer of responsibility for distribution of supplies from Government agencies to the trade. Effective methods for preventing the price level from falling below a pre-determined minimum should be perfected at this time, and during this stage the price level should not exceed 240% nor fall below 180% of the pre-war level.

Problem of Population

After analysing the various factors concerned with the growth of population, the Commission suggest that the population might reach 500 millions in 20 or 25 years' time and are of the opinion that whatever success in increasing food production can be achieved, an ultimate decrease in the rate of population is not only desirable but necessary. One way of reducing numbers, the Commission observe, is by emigration. "Within the Commonwealth and the Empire there are regions which are sparsely populated and need additional population for development. The war has emphasised the need for mutual assistance among all peoples within the Commonwealth and the Empire and we look forward to the day not only

when India will be a self-governing and equal partner in the Commonwealth, but also when her sons, who have fought beside other peoples of the Commonwealth and Empire in the cause of freedom in the present war, and their descendants, will be able to emigrate as colonists, entitled to the full rights of citizenship, to these sparsely populated areas."

While the Commission recognise the serious population situation, the primary problem in their opinion is that of the underdevelopment of agricultural and industrial resources. Despite the magnitude of the task, the Commission consider it possible to produce not only enough food to meet the needs of the growing population at subsistence level but enough to effect an improvement in the people's diet.

Problem of Nutrition

The Commission admit the existence of much ill-health, disease and mortality in India due to mal-nutrition. Diseases caused by or associated with insufficiency of some food factors are of common occurrence. It is estimated that 30% of the population in normal times do not get enough to eat while the diet of a large proportion of the rest is unbalanced. Improvement of nutrition therefore must form an essential part of the public health programmes in India. A well-balanced and satisfactory diet is, however, beyond the means of large sections of the people, and an improvement in the diet of the people cannot be achieved without a great increase in the production of protective foods and a simultaneous increase in the purchasing power of the people.

Agricultural Prices

The Commission consider maintenance of agricultural prices at a level fair both to the producer and the consumer as a factor of fundamental importance in post-war agricultural economy. The evolution of a scheme of regulation of prices must be based on a full examination of all aspects of the complex problem. The Commission confine themselves to stressing the lessons to be drawn from measures taken during the war to control the food situation in India, *viz.* :

(i) More than 4 acres out of every 5 are cultivated with food crops, and the area under wheat and rice is nearly one-half of the area under all food crops. The hard core of the problem of agricultural prices is therefore the stabilisation of rice and wheat prices.

(ii) During the transition period after the war, minimum and maximum prices should be fixed and maintained for wheat and rice even if it is found that the prices of other commodities cannot be so regulated. During this period, the essential requisites for price control, *viz.* control of imports, the existence of buffer stocks and an organisation for making purchases and sales in the market, should all be in existence.

Curing Agricultural Under-Employment

The most important of all rural economic problems is under-employment. Its solution is to be found in a combination of the following,

among other measures: (a) intensive farming involving adoption of various measures for increasing yields such as irrigation, manuring, improved seeds, mixed farming, etc., (b) cottage industries such as handloom weaving, (c) agro-industries as in Walachandnagar in Bombay Presidency, (d) organisation of village works through panchayats with powers to raise money by taxation and with grants-in-aid from public revenues, (e) migration from over-populated to under-populated rural areas and (f) large-scale industrialisation with development of hydro-electric power.

BRITISH MINISTERS

- Prime Minister*—Clement R. Attlee.
Home Secretary—Mr. James Chuter Ede.
Dominions Secretary—Lord Addison.
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Colonial Secretary—Mr. George Henry Hall.
Lord President—Mr. Herbert Morrison.
First Lord of the Admiralty—Mr. Albert Victor Alexander.
Secretary for War—Mr. John James Lawson.
Secretary for Air—Viscount Stansgate.
Minister of Health—Mr. Aneurin Bevan.
Minister of Supply and Aircraft Production—Mr. John Wilmot.
Minister of War Transport—Mr. A. Barnes.
Minister of Fuel and Power—Mr. E. Shinwell.
Minister of State—Mr. Philip John Noel-Baker.
Minister of Pensions—Mr. Wilfred Paling.
Minister of Food—Sir Ben Smith.
Minister of Agriculture—Mr. Tom Williams.
Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury—Mr. William Whiteley.
Secretary for Scotland—Mr. Joseph Westwood.
Minister of Labour and National Service—Mr. G. A. Isaacs.
Minister of Education—Miss E. Wilkinson.
Foreign Minister—Mr. Ernest Bevin.
Chancellor of the Exchequer—Dr. Hugh Dalton.
President of the Board of Trade—Sir Stafford Cripps.
Lord President of the Council and Leader of the House of Commons—
 Mr. Herbert Morrison.
Lord Chancellor—Lord Jowitt.
Lord Privy Seal—Mr. Arthur Greenwood.
Post Master-General—Lord Listowel.

INDIA OFFICE

- Secretary of State for India*—Hon. Lord Pethick-Lawrence (£5,000).
Under-Secy. of State for India—Major Arthur Anderson.
Permanent Under-Secretary of State—Sir F. Stewart, G.C.I.E., C.S.I.
Deputy Under-Secretary of State—Mr. William Croft.
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 Sir Courtenay Latimar, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Sir Hassan Suhrawardy,

O.B.E., Sir Gilbert Wiles, Diwan Bahadur S. E. Ranganathan, Sir John Woodhead, K.C.S.I., Sir A. C. Chatterjee, Sir John Hubback, K.C.I.E. and Sir Frederick Sayers, C.I.E., Sir T. Ameer Ali. (Each £1,350).

High Commissioner for India—Sir Samuel Ranganathan.

Dy. High Commissioner for India—M. K. Vellodi, C.I.E., I.C.S.

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Sir Charles Wood	1859	John Morley	1905
Earl de Gray & Ripon	1860	Earl of Crew	1910
Viscount Cranborne	1866	Viscount Morley	1911
Sir S. Northcote	1867	Earl of Crew	1911
Duke of Argyll	1868	Austen Chamberlain	1915
Marquess of Salisbury	1874	E. S. Montague	1917
G. Hardy	1878	Viscount Peel	1922
Marquess of Hartington	1880	Sir S. Oliver	1924
Earl of Kimberley	1882	Earl of Birkenhead	1924
Lord Randolph Churchill	1885	Viscount Peel	1928
Earl of Kimberley	1886	W. Wedgwood Benn	1929
Sir R. A. Cross	1886	Sir S. Hoare	1931
Earl of Kimberley	1892	Marquis of Zetland	1935
H. H. Fowler	1894	L. S. Amery	1940
Lord George Hamilton	1895	Lord Pethick-Lawrence	1945

GOVERNOR-GENERALS & VICEROYS

Governor-Generals of Bengal		Sir Charles Metcalfe	1835
Warren Hastings	1774	Lord Auckland	1836
Sir John Macpherson	1785	Lord Ellenborough	1842
Earl Cornwallis	1786	Sir Henry Hardinge	1844
Sir John Shore		Earl of Dalhousie	1848
(Lord Teignmouth)	1793	Lord Canning	1856
Sir Alfred Clarke	1798	Lord Canning	1858
Lord Wellesley	1798	Earl of Elgin II	1862
Lord Cornwallis (2nd time)	1805	*Sir Robert Napier	1863
Sir George Barlow	1805	*Sir William Denison	1863
Governor-Generals of India		Sir John Lawrence	1864
Earl of Minto I	1807	Earl of Mayo	1869
Lord Hastings (Earl of Moria)	1813	*John Strachey	1872
John Adam	1823	*Lord Napier	1872
Earl Amherst	1823	Lord Northbrook	1872
W. B. Bayley	1828	Earl of Lytton	1876
Lord W. Cavandish-Bentinck	1828	Lord Ripon	1880
Lord W. Cavandish-Bentinck	1833	Earl of Dufferin	1884
(2nd time)		Lord Lansdowne	1888
		Earl of Elgin II	1894

Lord Curzon	1899	Lord Irwin	1926
*Lord Ampthill	1904	*Viscount Goschen	1929
Lord Curzon	1904	Earl of Willingdon	1931
Earl of Minto II	1905	*Sir George Stanley	1934
Lord Hardinge	1910	Marquell Linlithgow	1936
Lord Chelmsford	1916	Viscount Wavell	1943
Lord Reading	1921	*Officiating.	
*Earl of Lytton	1925		

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

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(Assumed charge on October 20, 1943).

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C.S.I., D.S.O., O.B.E., A.D.C.

Deputy Commander-in-Chief of India

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Member, Staff—Col. H. W. Wagstaff.

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Head of the Indian Supply Mission to America—Mr. I. Vesugar.

- High Commissioner for India in South Africa*—Mr. Ramrao Madhavrao Deshmukh, Bar-at-Law.
- High Commissioner for India in England*—Sir Samuel Ranganathan.
- Indian Trade Commissioner in Canada*—N. R. Ahuja.
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- Govt. of India's Representative in Ceylon*—Mr. M. S. Aney.
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- Indian Trade Commissioner in Persia*—Major Hassan.
- Govt. of India's Trade Commissioner in Australia*—R. R. Saxena.
- Govt. of India's Representative in Burma*—Jamnadas M. Mehta.
- Govt. of India's Trade Commissioner in S. America*—J. R. K. Modi.
- Govt. of India's Trade Commissioner, Alexandria*—J. A. Rahim, I.C.S.

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- Sugar Controller of India*—N. C. Mehta, I.C.S.
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- Director, Geological Survey*—E. L. G. Clegg.
- Chief Press Adviser*—Sir Ushanath Sen.
- Principal Information Officer*—A. S. Iyengar.
- Director-General of Archaeology*—Dr. R. E. Mortimer Wheeler.
- Director-General, I.M.S.*—Maj.-Gen. J. B. Hence.
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- Economic Adviser to Govt. of India*—Sir T. Gregory.
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- Director, Civil Aviation*—Sir F. Tymms.
- Director-General, Food*—Mr. B. R. Sen, I.C.S.
- Rationing Adviser to Govt. of India*—W. H. Kirby.
- Director of Archives*—Dr. S. N. Sen.

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- Chief Justice of India*—Sir William Patrick Spens, O.B.E., K.C. (Rs. 7,000).
- Judges*—Hon. Sir Srinivasa Varadachariar, (Rs. 5,000).
- Hon. Sir Muhammad Zafrulla Khan, (Rs. 5,000)

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- Calcutta*—Hon. Sir Harold Derbyshire, K.C. (Rs. 72,000 per year).
Bombay—Hon. Sir Leonard Stone (Rs. 60,000 per year).
Madras—Hon. Sir Leach (Rs. 60,000 per year).
Patna—Hon. Sir Saiyid Fazli Ali (Rs. 60,000 per year).
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Nagpur—Sir Frederick Grille (Rs. 50,000).
Oudh (Chief Court)—Hon. G. T. Thomas (Rs. 48,000).

Puisne Judges*Calcutta (each Rs. 4,000).*

Hon. Mr. J. I. Y. Roxburgh.

" " A. L. Blank.

" " G. D. McNair.

" " S. Nasim Ali.

" " W. McCormic Sharpe.

" " N. G. A. Edgley.

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" " C. C. Biswas.

" " A. N. Khundkar.

" " A. N. Sen.

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" " S. Wardsworth.

" " B. Somayya.

" Sir M. Patanjali Sastri.

" Mr. C. N. Kuppuswami

" " C. Khuni Rahaman.

" " Chandrasekhara Iyer.

" " M. Sahabuddin.

" " L. C. Horwill.

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" " Yahya Ali Sahib.

Oudh Chief Court.

Hon. Sir G. H. Thomas (Chief Judge).

" " Gulam Hussain.

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"	J. B. Blagden.	
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"	S. C. Chatterjee.	
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"	R. B. Beevor.	
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"	B. B. Pande.	

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"	Vivian Bose.	
"	Mr. C. R. Hemeon.	
"	W. R. Puranik.	
"	J. Sen.	

Chief Court, Sind

Hon. Mr.	G. Davis (Chief Judge).	
"	T. V. Thadani.	
"	D. N. O'Sullivan.	
"	G. B. Constantine.	
"	Hatim B. Tyabji.	

*Judicial Commissioner's Court,**N. W. F. P.*

Hon. Sir	James Almond.	
"	K. B. Mir Ahmed Kazi.	

Number of Judges

<i>Court.</i>	<i>Maximum number.</i>
High Court, Madras	15 Judges.
High Court, Bombay	13 "
High Court, Calcutta	19 "
High Court, Allahabad	12 "
High Court, Lahore	15 "
High Court, Patna	11 "
High Court, Nagpur	7 "
High Court, Oudh	5 "
Judicial Commissioner of Sind ..	5 Asst. Judicial Commissioners.
Judicial Commissioners' Court, N. W. F. P.	2 Asst. Judicial Commissioners.

NO. OF SEATS IN THE PROVINCIAL ASSEMBLIES & COUNCILS

	<i>Assembly</i>	<i>Council</i>
Assam	108	60.
Bengal	250	22.
Bihar	152	Not more than 65 and not less than 63.
Bombay	175	30.
C. P. & Berar ..	112	Not less than 29 and not more than 30.
Madras	215	No Upper House.
N. W. F. P. ..	50	Not more than 56 and not less than 54.
Orissa	60	No Upper House.
Punjab	175	No Upper House.
Sind	60	No Upper House.
United Provinces ..	228	No Upper House.

MEMBERS OF THE COUNCIL OF STATE**President**

The Hon. Sir Maneckji Byramji Dadabhoy, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

Nominated—Including the President*(a) Officials*

H. E. General Sir Claude John Eyre Auchinleck ; Sir M. Uman ; Sir Jogendra Singh ; Sir S. N. Roy ; Mr. C. E. Jones ; Mr. C. M. G. Ogilvie ; Mr. G. S. Bozman ; Mr. E. Coran-Smith ; Mr. N. R. Pillai ; Major-General E. Wood ; Mr. Taffnell-Barett ; Mr. Shavx A. Lall ; Sir J. P. Srivastava ; Dr. B. N. Khare.

(b) Nominated Non-officials

Sir David Devadoss ; Sir K. Ramunni Menon ; Sir A. P. Patro ; Sir Rahimtoola Chinoy ; Sir Josna Ghosal ; R. B. S. K. Das ; Sir S. C. Mukherjee ; Sardar Nihal Singh ; Raja Charanjit Singh ; Nawabzada Khurshid Ali Khan ; K. B. Shams-ud-din Haidar ; Sir Hisam-ud-din Bahadur ; Sardar Bahadur Sobha Singh.

Elected Non-officials

Mr. Chindambaram Chettiyar ; Mrs. R. Subarayan ; Mr. V. Ramdas Pantulu ; Saiyad M. Padshah ; Mr. Govindlal S. Motilal ; Mr. S. D. Askuran ; Mr. Manockji N. Dalal ; Sir Suleman C. Haji Mitha ; K. B. Ali Buksh Mohamed Hussain ; Mr. R. H. Parker ; Surpat Singh ; S. K. Roy Chowdhury ; Syed Ihtisham Hyder Choudhury ; Mr. A. R. Hajee Abdool Suttar ; Mr. J. R. Burder ; Raja Yuveraj Datta Singh ; Pandit H. N. Kunzru ; Pandit P. N. Sapru ; Hazi Syed Mohamed Hussain ; Chaudhuri Niamatulla ; Lala Ramsaran Das ; Sardar Buta Singh ; Chaudhuri Ataula Khan Tarar ; Sir Kameswar Singh, Darbhanga ; R. B. Sri Narain Matha ; Nikunja Kishore Das ; Hussain Imam ; V. V. Kalikar ; B. N. Biyani ; Ali Ashgar Khan.

MEMBERS OF THE CENTRAL ASSEMBLY

President—Hon. Mr. G. V. Mavlankar.

Dy. President—Sir Mohamed Yamin Khan.

Bombay

- | | |
|--|---|
| E. L. C. Gwilt (<i>European</i>). | M. R. Masani (<i>Congress</i>). |
| H. G. Stokes (<i>European</i>). | G. V. Deshmukh (<i>Congress</i>). |
| G. V. Mavlankar (<i>Congress</i>). | N. V. Gadgil (<i>Congress</i>). |
| Vadilal Lallubhai (<i>Congress</i>). | B. S. Hirey (<i>Congress</i>). |
| Manu Subedar (<i>Congress</i>). | D. P. Karmakar (<i>Congress</i>). |
| Sardar N. G. Vinchurkar (<i>Ind.</i>). | M. A. Jinnah (<i>Muslim League</i>). |
| M. M. Killedar (<i>Muslim League</i>). | A. E. H. Jaffar (<i>Muslim League</i>). |

Sind

- Yusuf A. Haroon (*Muslim League*). Seth Sukhdev Udhavdas (*Cong.*)

Madras

- | | |
|---|--|
| T. A. Ramalingam Chetiar (<i>Cong.</i>) | Jinachandran (<i>Congress</i>). |
| V. C. Vellingeri Gounder (<i>Cong.</i>) | Mrs. Aminu Swaminathan (<i>Cong.</i>) |
| R. Venkatasubba M. Reddi (<i>Cong.</i>) | A. Karunakara Menon (<i>Congress</i>). |
| N. Narayanamurti (<i>Congress</i>). | T. V. Sadgopachariar (<i>Congress</i>). |
| V. Gangaraju (<i>Congress</i>). | Nayapati Narayanmurti (<i>Congress</i>). |
| Ananthasayanam Iyengar (<i>Cong.</i>) | M. Jamal Moideen (<i>Muslim League</i>). |
| N. G. Ranga (<i>Congress</i>). | K. M. Rahimatullah (<i>M. League</i>). |
| T. S. Adityan (<i>Congress</i>). | Hazi Abdul Sattar Essak Sait |
| | (<i>Muslim League</i>). |
| | S. C. Morris (<i>European</i>). |

Central Provinces

- | | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| Seth Govind Dass (<i>Congress</i>). | P. K. Salve (<i>Congress</i>). |
| Seth Shivdas Gaga (<i>Congress</i>). | Nawab Siddiq Ali Khan |
| Ganpatrao Dami (<i>Congress</i>). | (<i>Muslim League</i>). |

Ajmer-Merwara

- Mukut Beharilal Vargava (*Cong.*).

N. W. F. Province

- Khan Abdul Gani Khan (*Congress*).

Assam

- | | |
|--|---|
| P. J. Griffiths (<i>European</i>). | Rohini Kumar Chaudhury (<i>Cong.</i>). |
| Arun Kumar Chanda (<i>Congress</i>). | Ali Ashgar Khan (<i>Muslim League</i>). |

Bihar

- | | |
|--|---|
| Satyanarain Sinha (<i>Congress</i>). | Banarasidas Jhunjunwala (<i>Cong.</i>). |
| Ramnarain Singh (<i>Congress</i>). | Mohamed Nauman (<i>M. League</i>). |
| Bepin Behari Varma (<i>Congress</i>). | Chaudhuri Abid Hussain |
| Gauri Sankar Saran Singh (<i>Cong.</i>). | (<i>Muslim League</i>). |
| Ramnarain Prosad (<i>Congress</i>). | Khan Bahadur Habibur Rahman |
| Madandhari Singh (<i>Landholder</i>). | (<i>Muslim League</i>). |

Orissa

Bhagirathi Mahapatra (*Congress*). Jagannath Das (*Congress*).

United Provinces

Sri Prakash (*Congress*). Maharajakumar Sir Vijay of
 Mohanlal Saksena (*Congress*). Vizianagram (*Landholder*).
 Sardar Jogendra Singh (*Congress*). Raja Amir Ahmad Khan of
 Krishna Chandra Sharma (*Cong.*). Mahmudabad (*Muslim League*).
 S. D. Dutta Palliwal (*Congress*). Nawab Muhammad Ismail Khan
 Balkrishna Sharma (*Congress*). (*Muslim League*).
 Pandit Govind Malavya (*Congress*). Dr. Ziauddin Ahmed (*M. League*).
 Damodar Swarup (*Congress*). Khan Bahadur Ghazanfarulla Khan
 Nawabzada Liaquat Ali Khan (*Muslim League*).
 A. C. Inskip (*European*).

Punjab

Nawab Sir Mohd. Mehar Shah Dewan Chamanlal (*Congress*).
 (*Muslim League*). Pt. Thakardas Bhargava (*Congress*).
 Syed Gholam Bhik Nairang Raizada Hansraj (*Congress*).
 (*Muslim League*). Sardar Surjit Singh (*Sikh Ind.*).
 Hafiz Mohamed Abdulla Sardar Sampuran Singh (*Akali*).
 (*Muslim League*). Sardar Mangal Singh (*Akali*).
 Zafar Ali Khan (*Muslim League*).

Delhi

Asaf Ali (*Congress*).

Bengal

C. P. Lawson (*European*). Kumar D. L. Khan (*Congress*).
 M. A. F. Hirtzel (*European*). Kshitish Ch. Neogi (*Congress*).
 G. W. Tyson (*European*). A. R. Siddiqui (*Muslim League*).
 Anandamohan Poddar (*Congress*). Sir H. Suhrawardy (*M. League*).
 Sarat Ch. Bose (*Congress*). Rafiuddin A. Siddique (*M. League*).
 Nagendra N. Mukherjee (*Cong.*). Tamizuddin Khan (*M. League*).
 Sasanka Sekhar Sanyal (*Congress*). Chaudhury Muhammad Ismail
 D. K. Lahiri Chaudhuri (*Congress*). Khan (*Muslim League*).
 Satyapriya Banerjee (*Congress*).

Nominated Non-officials

T. Champman Mortimer. Raja Sir Syed Ahmed Ali Khan
 Frank R. Anthony. Chaudhuri Srichand.
 Lt.-Col. Dr. J. C. Chatterjee. Khan Bahadur Sharbat Khan.
 Rao Bahadur N. Sivaraj. Raja Bahadur Ramchandra Marda-
 Mrs. Maniben Kara. raj Deo of Khallikote.
 S. Guruswami. Col. Kumar Shri Himmat Singhi.
 Sir Cowasji Jehangir. Lt.-Col. Aftab Ali.
 R. B. Devendramohon Bhattacharjee.

Nominated Officials

Sir Edward Benthall.	Sir Aziz-ul-Haque.
Dr. R. B. Ambedkar.	Sir Asoka Roy.
Sir Ardeshir Dalal.	R. N. Banerjee.
Sir Archibald Rowlands.	Sir Pheroze Kharegat.
Sir John Thorne.	A. C. Turner.
Sir Akbar Hyderi.	S. H. Y. Oulsnam.
A. A. Waugh.	Philip Mason.
Sir George Spence.	Sir Kenneth Mitchell.
Sir Gurunath Bewoor.	

Congress Party

<i>Leader</i> —Sarat Chandra Bose.	<i>Chief Whip</i> —Satyanarayan Sinha.
<i>Dy. Leader</i> —Asaf Ali.	<i>Other Whips</i> —Sardar Jogendra
<i>Treasurer</i> —Seth Govind Das.	Singh, D. K. Lahiri Chaudhury
<i>Secretaries</i> —Prof. N. G. Ranga, N.	and T. S. Adityan.
V. Gadgil and Mohanlal Saksana.	

Muslim League Party

<i>Leader</i> —M. A. Jinnah.	<i>Treasurer</i> —Yusuf Abdulla Haroon.
<i>Dy. Leader</i> —Nawabzada Liaquat	<i>Chief Whip</i> —Haji Essak Sait.
Ali Khan.	<i>Asst. Whips</i> —Nawab Siddiq Ali
<i>Secretary</i> —Sir Mohd. Yamin Khan.	Khan and Ahmed Jaffar.

European Group

<i>Leader</i> —P. J. Griffiths.	<i>Whip</i> —E. L. C. Gwilt.
<i>Dy. Leader</i> —C. P. Lawson.	

PROVINCIAL MINISTERS**ASSAM**

Governor—H. E. Sir Andrew Gourlay Claw, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.
(Assumed charge May 4, 1942) (Rs 5,500).

Council of Ministers (Congress)

[Formed in March, 1946]

- Hon. Mr. Gopinath Bordoloi, Premier—*Education and Publicity.*
 Hon. Mr. Baidyanath Mookherjee—*Supply, Transport, Post-War Reconstruction and Jail.*
 Hon. Mr. Basanta Kumar Das—*Home, Judicial, General Legislative and Registration.*
 Hon. Mr. Bishnuram Medhi—*Finance and Revenue.*
 Hon. Rev. J. J. Nichols Roy—*Forests, P. W. D., Industry and Co-operation.*
 Hon. Mr. Ramnath Das—*Excise, Labour, Medical and Public Health.*
 Hon. Mr. Abdul Matlib Mazumdar—*Local Self-govt., Agriculture and Veterinary.*

BENGAL

Governor—H. E. Sir Frederick John Burrows, K.C.S.I.
(Assumed charge on 19th Feb., 1946) (Rs. 10,000).

*** Council of Ministers**

Hon. Mr. H. S. Suhrawardy (*Premier*).

BIHAR

H. E. Sir Hugh Dow, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. (from May 1946).
(Assumed charge on April 24, 1944) (Rs. 8,335-54)

Council of Ministers (Congress)

Hon. Mr. Srikrishna Sinha	Hon. Dr. Syed Mahmud.
(<i>Premier</i>).	" Mr. Jaglal Chaudhury.
" " Anugrahnarain Sinha.	" " Ramcharita Singh.
" " Badrinath Varma.	" " Krishnaballav Sahay
" " Binodanand Jha.	" " Abdul Quaiyum Ansari.

BOMBAY

Governor—H. E. Rt. Hon. Sir John David Colville, G.C.I.E., T.D.
(Assumed charge on March 24, 1943) (Rs. 10,000)

Council of Ministers (Congress)

Hon. Mr. B. G. Kher (<i>Premier</i>).	Hon. Mr. L. M. Patil.
" " Moraji Desai.	" " Gulzarilal Nanda.
" " Dr. M. D. D. Gilder.	" " M. P. Patil.
" " Mr. Dinkarra N. Desai.	" " Govind D. Vartak.
" " Vaikunth L. Mehta.	" " G. D. Tapase.

CENTRAL PROVINCES AND BERAR

Governor—H. E. Sir Henry Twynam, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.
(Assumed charge on October 2, 1940)

*** Council of Ministers (Congress)**

Hon. Pandit Ravisankar Sukla (*Premier*).

PUNJAB

Governor—Sir Evan Jenkins, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.
(From April 8, 1946)

Council of Ministers (Coalition Party)

Hon. Lt.-Col. Nawab Sir Khizr	Hon. Lala Bhimsen Sachar.
Hyat Khan (<i>Premier</i>).	
Hon. Sardar Baldev Singh.	" Chaudhuri Lahari Singh.
" Nawab Muzaffar Ali Khan	" Mian Mohd. Ibrahim Burq.
Qizlbash.	

* Name of Ministers not announced at the time of printing.

SIND

Governor—H. E. Sir Francis Mudie, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.; O.B.E.
(Assumed charge on April 1, 1941).

Council of Ministers (Muslim League)
(Formed in March, 1946)

Hon. Sir Ghulam Hussain	Hon. K. B. Mir Ghulam Ali Khan
Hidayatulla (<i>Premier</i>).	Talpur.
„ K. B. Muhammad Ayub	„ Mir Bundehali Khan Talpur.
Khuhro.	
„ Pir Illahi Baksh Nawaz Ali.	„ Pirzada Abdus Satar.

*** MADRAS**

Governor—Lt.-Gen. Sir Archibald Edward Nye, K.B.E., C.B., M.C.
(From April 1946)

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE

Governor—H. E. Sir Olaf Caroe, K.C.I.S., C.S.I.
(From March 1946)

Council of Ministers (Congress)

Hon. Dr. Khan Sahib (<i>Premier</i>).	Hon. Lala Mehrchand Khanna.
Hon. Qazi Attaullah Khan.	Hon. Khan Mohd. Yahya Jan.

UNITED PROVINCES

Governor—H. E. Sir Francis Wylie, K.C.S.I.S

Council of Ministers (Congress)

Hon. Pandit Govind Ballav Pant	Hon. Mr. Sampurnanand.
(<i>Premier</i>).	„ Mrs. Vijayalakshmi Pandit.
„ Mr. Rafi Ahmed Kidwai.	„ Mr. Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim.

ORISSA

Governor—H. E. Sir Hugh Dow, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. (from May 1946)

*** Council of Ministers** (Congress)

Hon. Mr. Harekrishna Mahtab (*Premier*).

CHIEF COMMISSIONER'S PROVINCES**Delhi**

Chief Commissioner—W. Christie I.C.S.

Andaman and Nicobar Islands**Coorg**

Chief Commissioner—Dewan Bahadur K. Chengappa.

* Name of Ministers not announced at the time of printing.

Baluchistan

Chief Commissioner—Lt. Col. W. R. Hay c.s.i.

Ajmer-Merwara

Chief Commissioner—H. R. Shevdasani i.c.s.

PRESIDENTS & SPEAKERS**Madras**

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—

President, Legislative Council—Hon. Dr. N. Rama Rau.

Bombay

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—

President, Legislative Council—Hon. Mr. M. M. Pakvasa.

United Provinces

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—

President, Council of State—Hon. Rai Bahadur Sir Sitaram.

Bihar

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—

President, Legislative Council—Hon. Sir Rajibranjan P. Sinha.

Punjab

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Dewan Bahadur S. P. Singha.

Dy. Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Sardar Kapur Singh.

Central Provinces & Berar

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—

Assam

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Mr. Deveswar Sarma.

Dy. Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Mrs. Bonily Khongman.

President, Legislative Council—Hon. Mrs. Zubedia Aatur Rahaman.

Orissa

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—

Sind

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Syed Miran Mohammed Shah.

Dy. Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Mrs. Jethi Sephalimani.

Bengal

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—

President, Legislative Council—Hon. Sir Bejoy Prasad Singh Roy.

N. W. F. Province

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Nawab Allah Nawaz.

Dy. Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Mr. Girdharilal Puri.

WAR SECTION

CHRONOLOGY OF WAR 1939-45

1939

September

- 1—Germany invades Poland without declaration of war.
- 3—Britain and France declare war against Germany fulfilling their pledge to defend Poland.
- 27—Warsaw falls.
- 29—German-Russian Partition of Poland.

November

- 28—Soviet Govt. denounces non-aggression pact with Finland.
- 30—Russia invades Finland.

December

- 13—Battle of the River Plate.
- 17—Following River Plate battle, German pocket battleship *Admiral Graf Spee* scuttled.
- 27—Indian troops land in France.

1940

March

- 12—Russo-Finnish peace signed.
- 28—Supreme War Council decision not to conclude peace except by mutual consent.

April

- 9—Germans invade Denmark; Germans invade Norway.
- 10—First Battle of Narvik.
- 13—Second Battle of Narvik;
- 15—British landing near Narvik.

May

- 10—Germany invades Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg; British and French troops enter Belgium; Germans cross the Maas at Arnheim; British troops land in Ice-

land; Churchill becomes Prime Minister.

- 13—Dutch Government move "elsewhere."
- 14—Bombing of Rotterdam (of the 50,000 civilian casualties, 30,000 were killed); Holland capitulates.
- 15—Germans break across the Meuse. B.E.F. withdrawn west of Brussels.
- 24—Germans advance to the Channel ports.
- 27—Belgium surrenders.
- 28—Narvik falls. Belgian army capitulates.

May 28-June 3

Dunkirk evacuation; 244,585 British and 112,546 French and Belgian troops evacuated. 222 British naval vessels and 635 other British craft engaged in the operation. British material lost—700 tanks, 2,400 guns and 50,000 vehicles. British casualties total 13,000 killed and 40,000 P.O.W.

June

- 5—Battle of France.
- 10—Italy declares war on Britain and France shortly before the capitulation of the latter.
- 13—Paris declared an open town.
- 14—Germans enter Paris.
- 16—British offer of Anglo-French Union rejected by French Government. Petain forms new government.
- 17—Petain govt. seeks peace.
- 22—Armistice of Compiègne signed by Marshal Petain.

July

- 5—Petain's Government break off diplomatic relations with Britain.

August

- 4—Italians invade Br. Somaliland.

August 8—October 31

The Battle of Britain—2,375 enemy aircraft were destroyed in daylight by fighters of the R.A.F. and anti-aircraft fire. The R.A.F. lost 733 aircraft, a ratio of 3-1; 375 pilots were killed.

During the period August-Sept. 1940 there were five separate occasions, when the R.A.F. shot down over a hundred enemy aircraft daily. Enemy aircraft shot down on August 15 numbered 181; on September 15 number was 185.

- 16—British evacuate Br. Somaliland.

September

- 3—Anglo-American agreement; Sea and Air Bases in Newfoundland and Bermuda to be leased free to America. Bases in Jamaica, St. Lucia, Trinidad, Antigua and British Guiana leased in exchange for the transfer of 50 destroyers to the U.K.

- 13—Italian advance into Egypt begins.

- 14—Indian troops arrive in Egypt.

October

- 28—Italians invade Greece.

November

- 11-12—Fleet Air Arm attack Italian naval units in Taranto harbour.

December

- 9—British offensive in the Western Desert begins.

- 11—4th Indian Division smash Italian fortresses and capture Sidi Barrani.

- 15—Sollum captured and Italians driven out of Egypt.

1941**January**

- 22—British capture Tobruk, the most important town of Cyrenaica and the chief Italian naval base.

February

- 2—El Agheila reached.
5—Benghazi captured.
1-27—Siege of Keren; Keren captured by Indian troops on February 27.

March

- 4—First Lofoten raid; fish-oil factory and ships destroyed.
11—Lend-Lease Bill signed by President Roosevelt.
28—Battle of Cape Matapan.

April

- 2—British withdraw from Merza Brega.
3—British evacuate Benghazi. Hostile *coup d'etat* engineered by Rashid Ali in Iraq.
6—Addis Ababa occupied; Germans invade Greece and Yugoslavia; British and Imperial Forces in Greece.
13—Siege of Tobruk begins. Germans captured Bardia.
19—British, Indian and other Imperial forces arrive in Basrah.

April 2-June 15

- German counter-offensive in N. Africa.

April 25-May 2

- Evacuation of Imperial Forces from Greece.
- 27—Germans occupy Athens.
- 28—Germans capture Sollum.

May

- 5—Haile Selassie enters Addis Ababa.
- 10—Rudolf Hess lands in Scotland with peace offer.
- 19—Duke of Aosta capitulates at Amba Alagi.
- 20—Germans invade Crete.
- 24—British Battleship 'Hood' blown up.
- 27—*Bismarck* sunk.
- 31—British troops enter Baghdad; end of rebellion; reinstatement of Emir Abdul Ilah.

June

- 1—British forces withdrawn from Crete. Evacuation of British and Imperial Forces.
- 8—Allies enter Syria.
- 21—Occupation of Damascus.
- 22—Germany invades Russia along 1,500 miles front from Finland to Black Sea.

July

- 1—Riga captured.

August

- 14—Atlantic Charter meeting between Churchill and Roosevelt. Russians announce evacuation of Smolensk.
- 18—Germans capture Kingisepp. Leningrad threatened.
- 25—Anglo-Russian forces begin march into Iran.

September

- 9—Persian Government signs treaty of alliance with Britain and U.S.S.R.
- 10—British forces reach Teheran. Germans occupy Kiev.

October

- Oct. 5 to Dec. 6—Battle for Moscow.
- 16—Odessa falls.
- 20—Germans now 65 miles from Moscow.
- 30—Atlantic Charter.

November

- 1—Sevastopol threatened.
- 7—Decision to arm U.S. merchantships and to permit them to enter combat zones.
- 13—U.S. Neutrality Act revised.
- 16—Germans capture Kerch.
- 22—Germans enter Rostov.
- 27—British relieve Tobruk.
- 28—Russians recapture Rostov.

December

- 7—Japan launches air attacks on U.S. naval, military and air bases at Pearl Harbour. Other air attacks on Manila, Shanghai, Malaya, Thailand, and Hong Kong.
- 8—Britain and the Dominions declare war on Japan. U.S.A. declare war on Japan. China declares war on Italy, Germany and Japan. Japanese attack on Hong Kong; Japanese troops land in Thailand, near Malayan frontier.
- 10—H.M.S. *Prince of Wales* and H.M.S. *Repulse* sunk.
- 11—Italy and Germany declare war on the United States. U.S. Congress declares war against Germany and Italy.
- 17—British capture Benghazi.
- 22—Japanese launch major attack on the Philippines.
- 23—First air raid on Rangoon.
- 24—More Japanese landings in Luzon; Manila raided.
- 25—Surrender of Hong Kong.
- 26—Second Lofoten raid. Manila declared open city.

1942

January

- 2—Manila and Cavite fall.
3—Twenty-six nations, including **May**

Britain, U.S.A., Russia, China, the Netherlands and India sign joint declaration against Axis Powers.

- 8—Rommel withdraws to El Agheila.

- 23—Jap air raid on Rangoon.

- 27—Churchill announces, (i) Combined Chiefs of Staff Committee to be set up in Washington, (ii) Pacific War Council to be set up in London, (iii) U.S. land and air forces to join British forces in United Kingdom. Dominions to be represented in War Cabinet.

- 23-27—Japanese landing in New Guinea at Lae; Japanese landing in Solomon Islands.

- 28—Russian cross Upper Donetz into the Ukraine.

- 30—British withdraw to the Island of Singapore.

- 31—Japanese capture Moulmein.

February

- 15—Singapore falls.

March

- 7-9—Rangoon evacuated and extrication of British forces from Pegu.

- 23—Japanese occupy Andaman Islands.

- 27-28—St. Nazaire raided. Principal battleship dock destroyed.

April

- 6—Japanese bomb India for the first time; attacks on Cocoda and Vizagapatam in Madras Presidency. Japanese landings on Bougainville.

- 29—Lashio falls. Evacuation of Mandalay, British retreat to India.

- 4-7—British landing in Madagascar. Diego Suarez captured.

- 4-8—Coral Sea Battle. Japanese fleet withdraws after heavy losses.

- 6—Corregidor garrison surrenders.

- 15—First British forces retreating from Burma reach India.

- 26—Twenty-year Anglo-Soviet Treaty signed providing for full collaboration during and after the war.

- 30-31—R.A.F. raid Cologne with 1,130 bombers.

June

- 1-2—R.A.F. raid Essen with 1,036 bombers.

- 10—German summer offensive opens in Russia.

- 21-26—Germans capture Tobruk and Axis reach Mersa Matruh, 65 miles from Alexandria.

July

- 1—Germans reach El Alamein, 65 miles from Alexandria. Germans re-capture Sevastopol after a seven-month siege.

August

- 12—Churchill visits Moscow.

- 19—Commando raid on Dieppe.

September

- 3—Germans capture Novorossisk.

- 12—Germans enter the streets of Stalingrad.

October

- 23—Montgomery opens offensive at El Alamein.

November

- 2—Allies capture Cocoda.

3—In Egypt Axis forces begin to retreat.

8—Allied landing in North-West Africa. Casablanca, Oran and Algiers captured.

13—British capture Tobruk.

16—British First Army enters Tunisia.

20—British capture Benghazi.

25—Australians capture Gna.

December

15—British capture El Agheila.

20—First Jap air raid on Calcutta.

1943

January

2—Allies occupy Buna.

14-24—Roosevelt and Churchill meet near Casablanca. Conference named "The Unconditional Surrender" meeting.

16—Iraq declares war on Germany, Italy and Japan.

18—Siege of Leningrad was raised after 16 months.

23—British capture Tripoli.

30—Adana Conference. Churchill meets Inonu.

February

2—German resistance in Stalin-grad ends. German Sixth Army consisting of 300,000 men completely destroyed.

25—R.A.F. begin round-the-clock bombing.

March

4—Battle of Bismarck Sea off New Guinea where big Japanese convoy was destroyed.

April

6—British capture Akarit line.

7—Capture of Tunis and Bizerta by the Allies is announced.

11—U.S. forces land on Attu Island.

12—All organised Axis resistance ends in North Africa.

May

20—Announced that a Commando force under Wingate has spent 3 months in Central Burma.

22—Moscow announces that Communist International is to be disbanded to avoid any danger of its preventing complete understanding among the United Nations.

June

11—Allies occupy Pantellaria, the Italian island.

12—Lampedusa surrenders.

13—Linosa, 90 miles south of Sicily surrenders.

July

9-10—Allied invasion of Sicily begins. Allied armies land on the south-eastern coast of Sicily. Indian troops land on the southern shores of the island.

15—Russians announce new offensive north and east of Orel.

19—Rome was raided for the first time by over 500 planes.

August

25—Mussolini resigns; Badoglio becomes Italian Premier.

September

17—Entire Sicily is now in Allied hands after 39 days.

25—Appointment of Lord Mountbatten as Supreme Allied Commander of South-East Asia announced.

3—Allied landings on the mainland of Italy.

8—Eisenhower announces unconditional surrender of Italy.

11—Surrender of Italian Navy.

October

- 1—Fall of Naples.
- 4—Corsica liberated.
- 12—First aid raid on Madras.
- 13—Italy declares war on Germany.

November

- 9—The first United Nations Organisation known as U.N.R.R.A. was born at Washington.
- 22—Cairo Conference—Roosevelt, Chiang Kai-shek and Churchill meet.
- 28—Teheran Conference between Roosevelt, Stalin & Churchill.

December

- 26—German battleship *Scharnhorst* sunk.

1944**January**

- 23—Allied landing south of Rome.

February

- 26—Red Army advance in the north towards Lake Peipus and Lake Pskov.
- 28—Jap withdrawal in Arakan.

March

- 1—Americans land on Marshall Islands, half way between Pearl Harbour and Tokio.
- 17—Airborne troops land in the rear of Japanese communications in Central Burma.
- 21—German occupation of Hungary announced.
- 22—Japanese raiding columns enter Manipur.

April

- 3—Russian troops enter Rumania.
- 10—Red Army liberates Odessa.
- 16—Lord Mountbatten transfers headquarters from Delhi to Kandy.
- 24—Allied landing on New Guinea.

May

- 12—Offensive in Italy by the Eighth and Fifth Armies.
- 17-18—Fall of Cassino.
- 26—Germans invade Bulgaria.

June

- 4—Allies liberate Rome, first European capital to be liberated.
- 6—Allied landing in Northern France. This the greatest combined operation in history.
- 7—Japanese withdrawal from Kohima area.
- 15—Super-Fortresses bomb Japanese mainland.
- 16—First German flying bombs with speed of 300 to 350 m.p.h. fell on England.
- 20—Allied occupation of Elba complete.
- 23—Russian offensive on the Central Front.
- 27—Cherbourg in Allied hands.
- 28—Capture of Mogaung, Burma.

July

- 9—Capture of Caen, the most important road junction in Normandy was captured by British & Canadian troops.
- 20—Japanese retreat from Imphal.

August

- 3—Allies capture Myitkyina, important Japanese base in N. Burma; Rennes liberated.
- 6—Tamu captured.
- 12—German retreat begins from Normandy.
- 15—Large Allied force lands in south of France between Nice and Marseilles.
- 17—Japs driven-out of Manipur State.
- 18—Battle of Normandy has ended in a crushing and decisive Allied victory.

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- 17—Japs driven out of Manipur State.
- 18—Battle of Normandy has ended in a crushing and decisive Allied victory.

22—French enter Toulon (finally cleared on August 27).

23—Complete liberation of Paris is announced after it had been occupied by the Germans for more than four years; Marseilles, the second city of France was also liberated.

25—Rumania declares war on Germany.

30—Russians capture of Ploesti, centre of Rumanian oil production.

31—British capture Amiens. Americans reach Sedan. Russian forces in Bucharest.

September

1—Dieppe, Arras and Verdun captured.

3—Brussels liberated by the British advance to Antwerp. Occupation of Lyons.

5—Allies carry war into Germany. Aachen and Saarbrücken captured. Russia declares war on Bulgaria.

6—Russian troops reach Yugoslav frontier.

8—Super-Fortresses bomb Anshan in Manchuria.

9—Soviet troops cross into East Prussia.

12—Churchill-Roosevelt Conference begins at Quebec.

14—MacArthur announces Allied landings in Halmahera and Palau islands.

15—Allies capture Nancy.

16—Capture of Brest announced. Red Army enters Sofia.

17—Allied airborne invasion of Holland.

18—Carrier-borne air attack against Sumatra.

19—Russo-Finnish Armistice signed.

22—Stalin announces capture of Tallinn, the Estonian capital.

26—Eighth Army cross the Rubicon.

30—Shelling of Dover ends.

October

1—Canadian troops occupy Calais.

5—Allied landing in Greece announced to resume the struggle there against the Germans after three and a half years.

10—British troops in Corinth.

13—Russians capture Riga.

14—British troops occupy Athens.

19—Capture of Tiddim by 14th Army.

20—Aachen falls to troops of American First Army. American forces landed in the central Philippines. Capture of Belgrade announced.

23—"Big Three" recognise de Gaulle's administration as the provisional Government of France. Big naval battle off Philippines begins.

November

1—British Commandos land on Island of Walcheren.

2—First official admission of German long range rocket V-2 falling on England.

3—All Belgium has been liberated.

7—Capture of Kennedy Peak by Fifth Indian Division.

9—Fifth Indian Division captures Fort White.

10—Churchill's announcement in House of Commons that the Germans had been using long-range rockets against Britain for the last few weeks.

- 13—Sinking of *Tirpitz* announced. Patton captures first Metz Fort.
- 14—Yugoslav National Liberation Army liberates Skoplje capital of Macedonia.
- 16—East African troops occupy Kalembo. MacArthur announces invasion of Mapia Island.
- 20—Chinese troops break into Bhamo.
- 22—Metz and Sarrebourg fall to Americans. Mulhouse captured by French troops.

December

- 3—Capture of Kalewa by E. African troops announced.
- 5—Saarlautern in Allied hands.
- 10—Franco-Russian Mutual Assistance Pact signed.
- 15—British troops in Arakan clear Buthidaung. Chinese 38th Division occupies Bhamo.
- 16—Americans land on Mindoro.
- 18—Battle of Ardennes—Big German attack north of Trier.
- 21—German drive 35 miles into Belgium.
- 23—Civil War breaks out in Greece.
- 24—Capture of Donbaik, Burma.
- 25—MacArthur announces completion of Leyte campaign.

1945

January

- 3—14th Army troops enter Ye-U.
- 5—British and Indian troops land on Akyab Island.
- 7—Indian troops enter Shwebo.
- 9—U.S. forces land on Luzon.
- 11—Truce signed between British and E.L.A.S. Greece.
- 12—Troops of 15th Indian Corps land on Myebon Peninsula, 32 miles from Akyab.

- 13—Russian winter offensive launched on three fronts.
- 17—Warsaw liberated by Red Army.
- 19—Stalin announces capture of Cracow.
- 21—Allies land on Ramree Island.
- 22—First breach in land blockade of China—linking of Ledo and Burma Roads announced.
- 26—Russians break into Danzig.
- 29—Capture of Memel announced—Lithuania completely cleared of Germans.

February

- 4—Zhukov's forces 46 miles from Berlin. Kunming greets first convoy over Ledo Road. Americans enter Manila.
- 10—Capture of Ramree town by 15th Indian Corps announced.
- 11—Russians cross the Oder north-west of Breslau.
- 13—Red Army captures Budapest.
- 15—1,500 planes attack Tokyo for nine hours.
- 18—American troops land on Corregidor.
- 19—American landings on Iwojima announced. Canadians break into Goch.
- 20—White House announcement that Churchill and Roosevelt met in Alexandria on their way back from Crimea to discuss Pacific war.
- 23—Capture of Poznan announced—Red Army bags 23,000 prisoners. Turkey declares war on Germany and Japan.
- 25—Egypt declares war against Axis.
- 26—MacArthur hands over civil govt. of the Philippines to President Sergio Osmena.

March

- 2—Allies capture Trier.
- 4—Allies reach the Rhine on 20-mile front. Red Army reaches Baltic Coast.
- 5—14th Army captures Meiktila.
- 6—Cologne falls to Americans.
- 7—U.S. First Army troops cross the Rhine, south of Cologne.
- 8—19th Indian Division enters Mandalay.
- 11—MacArthur announces American landings on Mindanao.
- 12—Red Army captures Kuestrin.
- 13—14th Army Task Force takes Maymyo.
- 14—R.A.F. use 22,000-lb. bombs for the first time.
- 16—Nimitz announces end of Iwojima battle.
- 17—Third Army troops enter Coblenz.
- 20—Mandalay falls to 14th Army.
- 24—Montgomery strikes across the Rhine.
- 26—U.S. Third Army breaks into Frankfurt-on-Main.
- 28—Stalin announces capture of Gdynia.

April

- 1—Americans land on Okinawa.
- 2—Eighth Army lands behind German lines.
- 3—Americans take Kassel.
- 4—Capture of Bratislava, capital of Slovakia, announced.
- 5—Moscow Radio announces end of Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact.
- 7—Japan's biggest battleship, the 45,000-ton *Yamato* sunk.
- 10—8th Army Cross Senio river on wide front. U.S. Ninth Army captures Hanover.
- 11—Fall of Essen announced. Sinking of German pocket

battleship *Admiral Scheer* announced. Spain breaks off relations with Japan.

- 13—Capture of Vienna by Red Army announced.
- 14—Capture of Von Papen in Ruhr pocket announced.
- 16—Canadian and Polish troops reach North Sea on wide front. S.E.A.C. announces capture of Taungup, last Jap coastal supply base in Arakan.
- 17—Allies 50 miles from Berlin.
- 19—Patton's troops enter Czechoslovakia.
- 21—Allies capture Bologna. Sinking of German pocket-battleship *Lutzow* by R.A.F.
- 22—U.S. Seventh Army reaches Danube at Dillingen.
- 23—Stalin announces Russian entry into Berlin.
- 26—German radio announces that Goering has relinquished command of the Luftwaffe.
- 27—Announcement of U.S. and Russian link-up at Torgua. U.S. Army crosses into Austria.
- 29—Mussolini executed by Partisans. Allied troops enter Milan. British cross Elbe south of Hamburg.
- 30—U.S. Army capture Munich. Allied troops enter Venice.

May

- 1—Hitler's reported death: Doenitz becomes new Fuehrer. List & von Leeb captured.
- 2—Surrender of German armies in Italy announced. Stalin announces capture of Berlin.
- 4—14th Army take Rangoon.
- 7—Unconditional German surrender.

RISE & FALL OF JAPAN

Here are some outstanding dates in Japan's years of triumph and ultimate disaster :

July 7, 1937.—Incident between Chinese and Japanese forces near Peking led to the Japanese occupation of this old Chinese capital.

Nov. 12, 1937.—Japanese troops occupied Shanghai.

Dec. 7, 1941.—Japanese attacked Pearl Harbour.

Jan 2, 1942.—Manila in the Philippines falls.

Feb. 15, 1942.—Singapore falls.

March 9, 1942.—Rangoon falls, but major portion of the British Army led by Field Marshal Sir Harold Alexander escaped into India.

May 1942.—United States Rear-Admiral Frank E. Fletcher operating in the Coral Sea intercepted and defeated Japanese invasion fleet heading for New Guinea and Australia.

Aug., 1942.—United States Marines landed on Solomon Islands.

Oct., 1942.—American troops recaptured Aleutian Islands.

Jan., 1944.—United States troops landed in Marshall Islands, first pre-war Japanese territory to be invaded.

June-July 1944.—Gen MacArthur's forces seized Saipan and Guam, "Bomb Tokyo" islands in the Marianas.

Oct., 18, 1944.—American troops landed in the Philippines after another naval defeat of Japan's naval forces in a three-day battle in the Philippine sea.

March 16, 1945.—Iwojima, 750 miles from Japan, captured by U.S. Forces.

May 3, 1945.—British forces reoccupied Rangoon, capital of Burma.

June 21, 1945.—Admiral Nimitz announced complete occupation of Okinawa.

Aug., 6, 1945.—First atom bomb obliterated Hiroshima.

Aug., 8, 1945.—Soviet Union declared war on Japan and a few hours later crossed the frontier into Manchuria.

Aug., 9, 1945.—Second atom bomb dropped on Nagasaki.

August 10.—The Japanese News Agency broadcast the following—"Japan is ready to accept terms of the Potsdam Conference with the understanding that the declaration does not compromise any demand which prejudices prerogatives of the Mikado's sovereign rules.

August 11.—U.S.A. sent the following reply which represented the view of Britain, Russia, China.

It stated, "at the moment of surrender the authority of the Emperor and of the Japanese Government to rule the State shall be subject to the Supreme Commander of Allied powers who will take such steps as he deems proper to effectuate the surrender terms. The Emperor will be required to authorise and ensure signature by the Government of Japan and the Japanese Imperial Headquarters of the surrender terms necessary to carry out the tradition of the Potsdam declaration and shall issue its command to all Japanese military and air authorities and to all forces under

their control wherever they are located to cease active operations and to surrender their arms and to issue such other orders as the Supreme Commander may require to give effect to the surrender terms".

INDIA'S PART IN THE WORLD WAR II

When Japan in the East and Germany and her satellites in the West were sweeping forward on their paths of aggression, their programme listed India as the meeting ground for Japanese and German Armies. The Japanese were to move into India after the conquest of Burma and the Germans, under the Nazi General Erwin Rommel, were to swing down through the African desert, past Suez, and then eastward to India. In the blueprint of Axis conquest, India was to provide the junction through which encirclement of the globe was to be realized.

Instead, India turned out to be a bulwark of defence for the United Nations, and a key point in the preparations for the ultimate triumph. India was not only a source of manpower and equipment, drawn from the rich human and material resources, it was a bridge over which supplies from the United Kingdom and the United States were transported for the attack on Japanese-held territory. Even while soldiers of the Indian Armies were helping push Rommel's African Corps back across the African desert, the docks and the roads of India were thronged with supplies being stockpiled for the destruction of Japanese military strength. And at the same time India itself was producing textiles, steel, coal, tools and ships for the use of Allied Armies everywhere.

Burma Campaign

Thousands of Chinese troops, taught by U.S. military instructors were prepared in India for the Burma battle. Some of these troops had retreated across Burma during the first months of the war with the Armies of General Joseph W. Stilwell. Other troops were sent directly to the Indian training bases by air transport from China.

Through the Assam Province Indian construction workers co-operated in building the Ledo Road, to connect with the Burma Road. With the liberation of Myitkyina on August 4, 1944, connection with the old Burma Road was made possible. Chinese troops trained in India aided in the capture of Myitkyina, gateway to a vital supply line to their own country. Other Chinese troops from the modern training camps in India were flown directly back to the Southeast Asia front, to fight the Japanese there.

Allied Airbases in India

Indian airbases helped to keep aloft the Anglo-American air forces whose purpose was to give air support to ground troops, facilitate the movement of troops by air, and to maintain supply service to land troops. By the spring of 1945, Allied fliers in this area were accomplishing 15,000 combat sorties monthly, in addition to transport flights. Air supremacy over the Japanese in Burma had been won in 1944. Far behind the battle area, the Japanese supply system was disrupted by Allied air raid. Ocean

sorties to guard Allied sea convoys aided in maintaining the logistics balance, and in all kinds of weather, British and U.S. transports flew over the "hump" route with supplies for China.

India's Man-power

The pre-war strength of the Indian Army, organized mainly for internal security and frontier defence, was 182,000. At the end of the war, the Army numbered more than 2,500,000.

Existing training schools for officers were expanded and many new ones opened. Technical training centres were established and new engineer corps of various categories formed. Paratroop battalions were raised, some of whom used parachutes made in India from Indian silk.

Since the rugged and tropical terrain, with its scarcity of roads, demanded animal transport, considerable numbers of such units were assembled. More than 300 Indian major field medical units, including women doctors, served with the Indian Armies. Large hospitals were built and staffed. Auxiliary services included a women's corps of more than 10,000. The Royal Indian Navy had its own women's auxiliary corps.

Indian troops were of great importance in the entire African campaign—in Eritrea, Italian Somaliland, Abyssinia (where they were the largest in numbers and the most heavily engaged of the British forces). Later, there were three Indian divisions with the British Eighth Army in Italy. Indian troops were also part of the British Army in Syria, Iraq and Iran. Speaking of these campaigns, Field Marshal Viscount Wavell said on September 16, 1944 :

"Without the assistance of India both in troops and in material, we most certainly could not have held the Middle East and the Middle East has been, I think I can claim, the keystone of our present success.

"It was India's troops that helped us hold not only Egypt but also Palestine, Syria, Iraq and Iran and for this the United Nations owe India a considerable debt."

R. I. N. & R. I. A. F.

When war broke out in 1939, there were 1,200 officers and men in the Royal Indian Navy; by the end of the war, there were nearly 45,000. Various technical training schools were set up; the anti-submarine school was the largest in the British Commonwealth outside the United Kingdom. At the Royal Indian Navy's dockyards at Bombay, vessels were repaired and refitted, and light craft were built.

The Royal Indian Navy participated in the battle of the Atlantic, in the Middle Eastern and Mediterranean operations against Italy, and performed particularly good service off the Burma Coast. In 1943, it took part in convoy operations, escorting the British Eighth Army, reinforcements and supplies to Sicily from North Africa.

The mercantile services of the United Nations contained more than 60,000 Indian seamen. By June, 1943, about 16,000 Merchant Marine

officers and men had been trained in the use of defensive armaments. At a training depot subsequently established, 2,000 additional Indian youths were being prepared for Merchant Marine service.

Toward the end of the war, the Royal Indian Air Force numbered about 15 squadrons. It aided in patrolling the Indian Ocean and in reconnaissance and bombing missions over Burma. Individual Indian air-men with the Royal Air Force saw active service over Germany.

At 17 technical and non-technical schools in India, training was given in all trades connected with air operations. More than 1 million Indians were engaged in the construction of the airfields, especially in eastern India, from which the Burma and China operations took off. Some types of aircraft were assembled in India. Indian princes donated about ten squadrons to the Royal Air Force.

Industrial Mobilization

Nearly 3 million people in India were directly engaged in defence industries. For the first two and a half years of the war, India supplied about 90 per cent of the British military needs of the Middle Eastern campaign. Later, it not only met about 80 per cent of the needs of its armed forces, but supplied other United Nations as well.

During 1943, an over-all increase of 50 per cent in the output of steel was achieved in India. Quality improvement produced an armour plate of high specification, so that the manufacture of armoured vehicles could be undertaken. Locomotives and their railroad equipment were produced in India for use in Allied strategy elsewhere, and India supplied engineering, construction and operational staff for remodelling the Iran railways.

The production of explosives had almost doubled at the end of 1942, artillery equipment advanced 30 per cent, small arms ammunition, 25 per cent, gun ammunition, 50 per cent and light machine guns 100 per cent. Manufacture of machine tools in India was a new occupation, in which more than 100 firms were engaged. A heavy chemical industry was developed including the production of high explosives, and India made as much as 65 per cent of her medical supplies.

More than 50 shipbuilding and repair firms in India employed over 50,000 workers, and undertook repairs of a kind never before done in the country. Mine sweepers, corvettes and patrol boats were built, a number of them fitted with engines also made in India. The Admiralty Floating Dock, constructed in India, is one of the largest in the world.

Reverse Lend-Lease

The lend-lease system of mutual aid among the United Nations, first initiated by the United States in 1941, had brought by the spring of 1945 about 243 million dollars worth of reciprocal aid from India. Included in this was more than 100 million dollars in facilities and services used by U.S. military forces stationed in India. American planes carrying supplies to China took off from lend-lease bases in India, as did the B-29 bombers

headed for Japanese installations in Malaya and Indo-China. Stores, rations, transport, telegram and telephone facilities, rental and utility charges and labour engaged in construction and repair services—all these went into the reverse lend-lease provided by India. Among the materials exported for U.S. military use elsewhere, on a reverse lend-lease arrangement, were jute, mica and coal.

ROYAL NAVY'S WAR CASUALTIES

The First Lord of the Admiralty, Mr. A. V. Alexander, on Oct. 22, 1945 disclosed Britain's naval war casualties, when he told a Trafalgar Day meeting that the Royal Navy lost over 730 ships and over 50,000 officers and men killed or missing.

JAPANESE NAVAL CASUALTIES

U. S. Navy Department released on September 20, 1945, the official details for the first time of the destruction of the Imperial Japanese Navy from December 7, 1941 (Pearl Harbour) to August 18, 1945—

Battleships 12	Heavy Cruisers 16
Aircraft carriers 15	Light Cruisers 20
Escort carriers 4	Destroyers 126
		Submarines 125

318*

* Sunk or out of Action.

GERMAN CASUALTIES

Prime Minister Mr. Attlee announced in the House of Commons that the total losses of the German armed forces in killed, permanently wounded and permanent medical casualties were estimated at 7,400,000 (1st Sept., 1939 to May 10, 1945) as compared with British Commonwealth and Empire casualties of 1,233,796 (336,772 killed).

BR. EMPIRE WAR CASUALTIES

Prime Minister C. Attlee gave the following figures on Nov., 29, 1945 in the House of Commons.—

(Sept. 3, 1939 to August 14, 1945).

	killed	missing	wounded	prisoners	Total
United Kingdom	244,723	53,039	277,090	180,405	755,257
Canada	37,476	1,843	53,174	9,045	101,538
Australia	23,365	6,030	39,803	26,363	95,561
New Zealand	10,033	2,129	19,314	8,453	39,929
South Africa	6,840	1,841	14,363	14,589	37,633
India	24,338	11,754	64,354	79,489	179,935
Colonies	6,877	14,208	6,972	8,115	36,172
	3,53,652	90,844	475,070	326,459	1,246,025

Figures in the above table exclude (1) Civilian Casualties caused by enemy action, (2) Casualties to Merchant Shipping, (3) Casualties to the members of the British Home Guard.

CASUALTIES IN MERCHANT SEAMEN

Deaths	30,189	Wounded	4,402
Missing	5,264	Interness	5,556
			<hr/> 45,556

INDIAN ARMY DURING THE WAR

Army—2,053,000 ; Royal Indian Navy—32,917 ; Royal Indian Air Force—29,820.

(War Secy.'s reply in the Central Assembly, Feb. 26, 1946)

INDIAN NATIONAL ARMY STRENGTH

Joined from Indian Army

Hindus	12,000	Civilians (more than)	22,000
Muslims	5,000		
Sikh (about)	3,000		

(War Secy.'s reply in the Central Assembly, Feb. 26, 1946)

U. S. NAVAL LOSSES IN WAR

The United States Navy lost 701 vessels during the war, 157 of them firstline fighting ships and the remainder auxiliaries and amphibious craft.

The major ship losses including two battleships—the 32,600 ton *Arizona* and the 29,00-ton *Oklahoma*—Both pre-Pearl Harbour casualties.

Other losses were : aircraft carriers five ; escort carriers—six ; heavy cruisers—seven ; light cruisers—three ; destroyers—71 ; destroyer escorts—11 ; and submarines—52.

COMPOSITION OF ALLIED FORCES IN S. E. A. C. AREA

Information released by Br. Ministry of Information Sept. 11, 1945—

Land Strength—

	1945	1944
(a) Operational—British & Indian troops	561,512	627,476
(b) Communications—British & Indian troops	117,795	136,019

Air Strength—

(a) Operational—R.A.F., R.I.A.F. R.C.A.F., U.S.A.A.F.	70,391	43,196
(b) Non-operational—R.A.F., R.I.A.F., R.C.A.F.	44,440	26,330

Navy Strength—

Royal Navy	85,000	65,000
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In addition, British & African troops (operational, numbered 31,658 in 1944 and 37,137 in 1945; U. S. forces 6,635 in 1944 and 12,097 in 1945; and Chinese forces 57,942 in 1944 and 72,725 in 1945. U. S. forces engaged in administering, supplying and maintaining an traffic over "Hump" and traffic on Ledo Road were 104,222 in 1944 and 166,204 in 1945. Altogether 1,189,108 Allied troops and communications personnel were manning the largest land front against Japan in 1944 and 1,303,126 in 1945. The British Commonwealth and Empire forces accounted for 80 p.c. of the total Allied strength and 88 p.c. of the operational strength in 1944, corresponding percentages for 1945 being 73 and 84.

INDIA'S WAR CASUALTIES

India's war casualties reported up to August 14, 1945, are 179,395 according to the Prime Minister, Mr. Attlee in the House of Commons in reply to a question. They are made up of killed 24,338; missing 11,754; wounded 64,354; prisoners of war including service internees 79,489 (including 20,147 officers and other ranks missing but presumed prisoners of war).

FREE COUNTRIES OF EUROPE DURING WORLD-WAR II

- (1) Switzerland; (2) Vichy France; (3) Spain; (4) Portugal
(5) Sweden; (6) Turkey.

WAR CONFERENCES AND DECLARATIONS

1. Atlantic Charter

Joint statement of President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill early in August, 1941—

1. Their countries seek no aggrandizement, territorial or other.
2. They desire to see no territorial changes that do not accord with the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned.
3. They respect the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live; and wish to see sovereign rights and self-government restored to those who have been forcibly deprived of them.
4. They will endeavour to further the enjoyment by all states of access on equal term to the trade and to the raw materials of the world.
5. They desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all nations in the economic field.
6. After the final destruction of the Nazi tyranny, they hope to see established a peace which will afford assurance that all the men in all the lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want.

7. Such a peace should enable all men to traverse the high seas and oceans without hindrance.

8. They believe that all of the nations of the world must come to the abandonment of the use of force. Since no future peace can be maintained if land, sea or air armaments continue to be employed by nations which threaten or may threaten aggression outside of their frontiers, they believe that disarmament of such nations is essential. They will likewise aid and encourage all other practicable measures which will lighten for peace-loving peoples the crushing burden of armaments.

2. Four Freedoms

President Roosevelt in an address to the Congress declared on January 6, 1941: "In future which we seek to make secure, we look forward for a world founded upon four essential human freedoms—

The first is *freedom of speech* and expression—everywhere in the world.

The second is *freedom of every person to worship God* in his own way—everywhere in the world.

The third is *freedom from want*—which translated into world terms, means economic understandings which will secure to every nation a healthy peaceful life for its inhabitants—everywhere in the world.

The fourth is *freedom from fear*—which translated into world terms, means a world-wide reduction of armaments to such a point and in such a thorough fashion that no nation will be in a position to commit an act of aggression against any neighbour—anywhere in the world.

3. United Nations & Their Declarations

Twenty-six nations at war with one or more of the Axis powers on January 2, 1942 made the following declaration at Washington:—

(1) Each government pledges itself to employ its full resources, military or economic, against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which such government is at war.

(2) Each government pledges itself to co-operate with the governments signatory hereto and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemies.

United Nations—These countries were first to sign United Nations' declarations—U. S. A., United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, U. S. S. R., China, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, India, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Poland, South Africa, Yugoslavia. Following other countries also signed the declaration subsequently—Mexico, the Philippines, Ethiopia, Iraq, Brazil, Bolivia, Iran, Colombia, Liberia etc.

4. Casablanca Conference

President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill met at Casablanca, French Morocco on January 24, 1943 in a conference for making

United Nations plan for the "unconditional surrender" of the Axis powers. The main objectives of the conference as stated by the President Roosevelt were—(1) To maintain the initiative obtained in the closing days of 1942 and to extend it. (2) To dispatch all aid to the Russian front with the objectives of whittling down German manpower and munitions. (3) To send assistance to the Chinese armies. (4) To unite the French in a war against the Axis.

5. Moscow Conference

A conference of Foreign Secretaries of United States, United Kingdom, Soviet Union took place at Moscow from the 19th to 30th October, 1943. It was afterwards joined by the Chinese Ambassador. There were frank and exhaustive discussions of the measures to be taken to shorten the war against Germany and the Allies. The three governments stated that it was essential in their own national interests and in the interest of all peace-loving nations to continue the present close collaboration and co-operation in the conduct of war. The conference (1) agreed to set up machinery for insuring the closest co-operation between three Governments in the examination of European questions arising as the war develops. For this purpose the conference decided to establish in London a European Advisory Commission. (2) Provision was made for continuing when necessary the tri-partite consultations of representatives of the three Governments in the respective capitals through the existing diplomatic channels. (3) The conference agreed to establish an advisory council for matters relating to Italy. (4) The conference also declared it to be the purpose of their governments to restore independence to Austria.

6. First Quebec Conference

A conference between President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill was held at Quebec, Canada in August, 1943. Following were the results of the conference—The whole field of world operations was surveyed in the light of many gratifying events and necessary decisions were taken to provide for the forward actions of the Fleets, Armies and Air Forces of the two nations. Considering that these forces were intermingled in continuous action against the enemy, it was indispensable that the entire unity of aim and method should be maintained at the summit of the war direction. The military discussions turned very largely upon the war against Japan and the bringing of effective aid to China.

7. Cairo Conference

The Cairo Conference met November 22-26, 1943 at Cairo, where President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Winston Churchill and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek met together to discuss future military operations against Japan. The three great Allies were fighting the war to restrain and punish the aggression of Japan.

It was their purpose that Japan should be stripped of all the islands in the Pacific which she seized or occupied since the beginning of the

first world war in 1914 and all the territories Japan had stolen from the Chinese, such as Manchuria, Formosa and the Pescadores, should be restored to the Republic of China.

8. Tehran Conference

Premier Stalin, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill met in Tehran on November 26 to December 2, 1943 and declared the results of the conference as such—we express our determination that our nations shall work together in the war and in the peace that will follow.

We have reached complete agreements as to the scope and timing of operations which will be undertaken from east, west and south. We recognise fully the supreme responsibility resting upon us and all the United Nations to make a peace which will come and goodwill from the overwhelming masses of the peoples of the world and banish scourge and terror of war for many generations.

We shall seek the co-operation and active participation of all nations, large and small, whose peoples in heart and in mind are dedicated, as are our own peoples to the elimination of tyranny and slavery, oppression and intolerance.

9. Second Quebec Conference

President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill met at a second conference at Quebec in September 11-16, 1944. The following statement was issued—All aspects of war against Germany and Japan were discussed. In a very short space of time, the meeting reached decisions on all points both with regard to the completion of the war in Europe and the destruction of the barbarians of the Pacific.

The most serious difficulty has been to find out ground and opportunity for marshalling against Japan the massive forces which each and all of the nations concerned are ardent to engage against the enemy.

10. Yalta Conference

Comprehensive plan for the final defeat of Germany, her occupation and disarmament, including the break up for all time of the German General Staff were announced in a joint Churchill-Roosevelt-Stalin statement, who met in conference at Yalta, in the Crimea.

The three powers will each occupy a separate zone in Germany. France will be invited to take a zone of occupation if desired.

The plan provides for the removal of all German Military Equipment, Control of German Industry and bring the war-criminals to justice. The Nazi party and organization are to be wiped out.

An agreement was reached on Poland involving reorganization of the Provisional Government. The Polish Eastern Frontier will essentially follow the Curzon Line with Poland receiving new territory elsewhere.

It was agreed that the conference of the United Nations be called in San Francisco on April 25, 1945, to prepare a Charter of Peace and Security Organization on the lines of the Dumberton Oaks Talks.

11. Potsdam Conference

Agreed plans for the complete and final destruction of the Nazi creed, the German General Staff and the entire range of Germany's war-making potential, together with "all other measures necessary to assure that Germany will never again threaten the peace of the world" were set out in a statement issued at the Potsdam Conference on August 2, 1945.

All German military forces of every description, on land, sea and in the air, are to be utterly abolished; all arms, ammunition and implements of war are to be held by the Allies or destroyed; all Nazi institutions and laws are to be abolished, and no central German government is for the time being to be permitted.

The production of all forms of arms as well as aircraft and sea-going ships is prohibited, powerful German trade cartels and syndicates are to be broken up, German economy is to be decentralized, and production concentrated on agriculture and peaceful domestic industries.

It is, however, not the intention of the Allies to destroy or enslave the German people. The Germans will be given an opportunity to prepare for the eventual reconstruction of their life on a democratic and peaceful basis. If their own efforts are steadily directed to this end, it will be possible for them, in due course, to take their place among the free and peaceful peoples of the world.

The statement also announces that it has been decided to establish a Council of Foreign Ministers, representing Britain, Russia, China, France and the U.S.A., to prepare peace treaties with defeated German satellite countries (Bulgaria, Finland, Hungary and Rumania) and to plan a peaceful settlement with Germany. It will be the "immediate important task" of the Council to prepare a peace treaty for Italy. The Council will normally meet in London.

Countries other than the five named may be invited to be represented when their affairs are under discussion; and France is to be included in the peace negotiations with Italy. China and France, who were not represented at Berlin, have been invited to join this Council; but the Big Three reserve the right to consult among themselves.

ELECTIONS IN INDIA

Central Assembly

Immediately after the termination of World War II, Government of India announced their decision to hold general elections in the Provinces and in the Centre. From the results of the Central Assembly elections the verdict of the electorate may be summarised as follows:—

- (a) In the general constituencies the Congress has swept the polls against all opposition.

- (b) In the Muslim constituency, the Muslim League has equally swept the polls against other Muslim opposition.
- (c) In the joint electorate constituencies of Delhi, Ajmer-Marwara and North-West Frontier Province where Congress and Muslim League meet jointly, the Congress has completely swept the polls against all opposition.
- (d) The Congress gave a smashing defeat to Hindu Mahasabha, Justices, Communists, Democratic Party and others.

Muslim League Party.

The success of the Muslim League Party against Nationalist Muslims and Congress Muslims is noteworthy. In the new Central Assembly, the League increased its strength from 25 to 30.

Assembly Opposition

The Assembly opposition now consists of three parties—The Congress, the Muslim League and the European Group. The Nationalist Party has ceased to exist in the new House. There are two Sikh members representing Akali Party of Punjab who will generally vote with the Congress. Congress may get the vote of at least four more from among the few unattached or independent members. Probably not more than two elected Moslems will remain outside the Muslim League. Sixty-eight out of 102 elected members are new to the House.

Congress Party

Congress is the single biggest party in the Central Assembly. Whereas it never had more than 44 votes in the old Assembly, it now has nearly 60 votes. In a House of 102 elected members, including 8 representatives of the European Community and various other vested interests and reactionary groups, Congress captured almost 50 p.c. of the General Seats uncontested *i.e.* of the total of 51 General Seats in the House, the Congress captured 29 seats uncontested. Of the 4 seats reserved for Commerce and Industry, the Congress got 3, of the 60 seats contested Congress lost only 4 seats. But the most significant feature of all these results is the Congress victories in "mixed" constituencies in which, Hindus, Muslims, Christians and other voted jointly. Throughout India there are only three non-communal seats, three constituencies which have joint electorates. Here the Congress had cent. per cent. success. The Muslim League did not even venture to put up candidates of its own.

Assam

The Congress Party has secured 58 seats in a House of 108. The *Jamiat-ul-Ulema* Party which contested the Muslim League has returned three members who would align themselves with the Congress Party. The Muslim League strength is 31 and the Europeans number 9. There are seven members unattached to any party, but it is surmised that about half of that number will come over to the Congress. Congress Party's success

in Assam has been notable in one instance as it now represents almost all communities and interests, such as Tribes, Christians, Labour, etc.

Though Muslim population of Assam is only 33 p.c., Muslim League claims the Province as a part of its Pakistan. The 1941 census showed that in Assam the Hindus numbered 4,213,223, the Muslims 3,442,497 and the Tribes 2,484,990. The Khasis, Miris, Garos, etc. were included in the Tribal figure. The tribes mainly consist of followers of the Hindu religion with a sprinkling of Christians.

In Assam after 1937 elections there were 14 parties in the Assembly; now there are only five including *Jamiat* aligned with the Congress and the Europeans.

United Provinces

In the 1946 elections, the Congress seized all the 144 General Seats including Scheduled Caste and Women's Seats. The Congress has also captured three Muslim Seats, the University, the Christian Seats bringing the total strength of Congress Party to 150 in a House of 228—

Congress	150	Landholders	6	Muslim Seats	
Muslim League	54	Europeans	2	(total)	66
Nationalist Muslims	7	Anglo-Indians	1	Muslim League	54
Arhars	1	Commerce	3	Nationalist Muslims	7
Ind. Muslims	1	Ind. Christians	1	Congress Muslims	4
				Ind. Muslims	1

Sind

The Muslim League failed to secure an absolute stable ministry. The election results showed that in a House of sixty, Muslim League got only 30 members against 29 members of the Congress Coalition Party. After 1937 elections, there were nine groups in Sind Assembly, now there are only four in 1946 (including the three Europeans) and of these the Congress, the Progressive Muslim League (Syed's Party) and Nationalist Muslims have coalesced.

Though Muslim League has formed a Ministry, it has already suffered a defeat.

N. W. F. Province

In N. W. F. Province, the Congress has once more emerged as the predominant group. With over 90 p.c. Muslim population, Muslim League has failed to form a Ministry there. The position of the parties is as follows:—

Congress	30
Muslim League	17
Nationalist Muslims	2
Akali Sikh	1
Total	50

Of the Congress Party 19 are Muslims 9 Hindus and 2 Sikhs.

Punjab

The collapse of the Unionist Party is the most outstanding feature of the provincial elections in the Punjab. The party has been reduced to a rump of 19 members in a House of 175. The *Ahrars* and *Khaksars* have practically disappeared from the scene. The Muslim League with its impressive total of 87 and Panthic Akali Sikhs with their 22 representatives represent the triumph of communalism in a system based on separate communal electorates. That the Congress has been able to get 51 seats including one Muslim and a good contingent of Sikhs is a remarkable achievement. Emergence of Akali Sikhs introduces yet another communalism in the Punjab politics.

The position of the various parties were as follows—Coalition Party (consisting of the *Congress*, *Unionist* and *Panthic Akalis*) 89; *Muslim League* 79; Independents 4; Pending bye-elections 3. The Congress has 51 members.

A glance at the election result of the Punjab show how delicate is the balance of power in the Assembly. After much parleying and discussions, the Congress, Unionists and Panthic Akalis have formed there a Coalition Party with Lt.-Col. Malik Sir Khizr Hyat Khan as their leader. This Coalition Party has now formed Coalition Ministry in the Punjab with Muslim League as its Opposition Party.

Bombay

The final position of the new Bombay Assembly stands as follows :—

Congress	124	Communists	1
Muslim League	6	Radical Democrats	1
Europeans	6	Hindu Mahasabha	1
Anglo-Indians	2		

Bihar

Analysis of the results of voting from various constituencies shows, the Congress has emerged as the large Party with an overwhelming majority and with same number of seats as in the last elections. These include, 70 out of 71 General Seats, all the 15 Scheduled Caste Seats, 5 out of 7 seats reserved for Backward Tribes, all the 3 Women's General Seats, all the 3 Labour Seats, 1 Commerce and 1 Muslim Seat.

Of the 98 seats captured by the Congress, there has been 44 uncontested returns including 32 General Seats, 7 Scheduled Caste Seats, 3 Backward Tribes Seats and 2 Women's Seats. The Congress has lost 1 General Seat in Singhbhum Constituency, 2 seats, reserved for Backward Tribes, 1 Indian Christian Seat and 8 out of 9 Muslim Seats that it contested totalling 12 seats. The Congress set up candidates for 110 seats in all, against 107 in the last elections.

Of the 40 Muslim Seats in the Assembly the Muslim League captured 34 and thus is the second largest party in the Bihar Assembly. Momin Party 5 and Congress 1. In the last elections not a single Muslim was returned on the League ticket and the largest Muslim Bloc was the Muslim Independent Party with a strength of 20. The other Muslim Parties contesting in the present elections were *Jamiat-ul-Ulema* who nominated 6 candidates, Nationalist Muslims 4, Independent 8 and unattached 2. None of these has been able to secure a single Muslim Seat.

Not a single candidate has been returned on the Hindu Mahasabha ticket to Bihar Assembly. Similarly not a single candidate has been returned on the Radical Democratic Party ticket nor on Communist and Tribeni Sangh tickets.

The Adibasi Party had nominated 10 candidates for the General Seats and succeeded wresting 1 from the Congress candidate. It has also won 2 out of the 3 seats reserved for the Backward Tribes.

Congress	98	Adibasis	3
Muslim League	34	Landholders	4
Momin Party	5	Special constituencies	8

Total .. 152

Bengal

Composition of the Assembly—The Assembly is composed of 250 members. In territorial constituencies Muslims have 117 seats and Hindus including Scheduled Caste (known as General Constituencies) 78. In addition 5 seats are allotted to women, two each for Muslims and Hindus and one for Anglo-Indians. Europeans (including Commerce and Industries) have 25 seats, Landholders five, Labour eight, Universities two, Indian Commerce and Industry five, Anglo-Indian three and Indian Christians two. Fifty-one candidates were returned unopposed—Congress 15, Muslim League 11, Europeans 23, Hindu Mahasabha 1 and Independent 1. The parties that contested General Seats were Congress, Hindu Mahasabha, Communists, Radical Democrats and Independents. Muslim Seats were contested by Muslim League, Muslim Parliamentary Board consisting of Krishak Praja Party and Jamiat-ul-Ulema Hind. Congress also contested six out of eight Labour Seats.

Muslim League	114	Independent Muslims	3
Congress	86	Communists	3
Europeans	23	Indian Christians	2
Scheduled Caste Independents	6	Hindu Independent	1
Anglo-Indians	4	Hindu Mahasabha	1
Krishak Praja (Muslim)	3		

Total .. 246

Madras

The position of the parties in the Madras Assembly stands as follows—

Congress	103	Europeans	7
Muslim League	20	Independents	2

CONGRESS IN 1945

Desai-Liaquat Pact

The political deadlock and frustration which were the keynote of Indian political atmosphere in 1944, also persisted throughout 1945. Though several attempts were made to lift this veil of frustration, they all proved fruitless.

The first attempt was the *Desai-Liaquat pact* providing an opening for big political changes in the summer of 1945. Mr. Bulabhai Desai, leader of the Congress Party in the Central Assembly initiated negotiations with Nawabzada Liaquat Ali Khan, Deputy Leader of the Muslim League Party in the Central Assembly. Mr. Desai suggested a formula for an interim agreement between the Congress and the League for forming an interim government in the Centre on certain terms (*vide Desai-Liaquat Pact* elsewhere). But nothing came out of it. But it is a well-known fact that this pact provided the basis for the proposal made by Lord Wavell in June 1945 and in a sense for Simla Conference.

Simla Conference

So in summer of 1945 Lord Wavell paid a visit to Great Britain and on his return in June unfolded the proposals of H. M.'s Government to ease Indian political situation. The following is the main proposals—(1) Formation of a new Executive Council more representative of organised political opinion; (2) Proposed new Council would include equal proportion of Caste Hindus and Muslims; (3) It would be an entirely Indian Council except for the Viceroy and Commander-in-Chief; (4) Portfolio of External Affairs to be in charge of Indian Member; (5) Appointment of a British High Commissioner in India to represent British commercial or other interests; (6) Council to work within the framework of present constitution.

The Simla conference convened by Lord Wavell, the Viceroy of India with the aim of creating a new Executive Council opened on June 25, 1945. The delegates were representatives of Scheduled Castes, Sikhs, Congress, Muslim League, the Congress and Muslim League leaders of Central Assembly and Council of State, Premiers of Indian Provinces or those who were last premiers before the introduction of "Section 93" rule and Mahatma Gandhi and Mr. M. A. Jinnah.

Accepting the Viceroy's invitation, Mr. Jinnah declared that the Muslim League would make its contribution to any just and reasoned solution, while Mahatma Gandhi emphasised that he had no *locus standi* as an official representative of the Congress; that function, he said, belonged to the Congress President Maulana A. K. Azad or any person nominated by him.

In his telegram of acceptance, Mahatma Gandhi took exception to the phrase 'Caste Hindus' used by the Viceroy in the later's broadcast on June 15, declaring, "May I say that there are no Caste or Casteless Hindus who are at all politically minded. Therefore the word rings untrue and

offensive. Who will represent him at your table. Not the Congress which seeks to represent without distinction all Indians who desire and work for independence. Hence the existence of the Hindu Mahasabha claiming to represent Hindus as such. I apprehend that even that body will disdain representing the caste Hindus."

Lord Wavell in reply said: "I assure you that the term 'Caste Hindus' was not used with offensive intention. The meaning is that there should be equality between Muslims and Hindus other than members of the Scheduled Castes. Subject to this, the exact composition of the Council would, of course, have to be decided after discussion at the conference."

The Congress Working Committee meeting on June 21 for the first time after three years at Bombay decided to accept the Viceroy's invitation.

In opening the conference at Simla on the 25th June Viceroy made the following appeal—"It is not a constitutional settlement, it is not the final solution of India's complex problems that is proposed. Nor does the plan in any way prejudice or prejudice the final issue. But if it succeeds, I am sure that it will pave the way towards a settlement and will bring it nearer."

The difficulties arose at the outset between the Congress and the Muslim League viewpoints. The crux of the dispute lay in the fact that while the Congress adhered to its claim that it being a national organisation, it must have Muslim as well as Hindu representatives in the proposed new Council, the Muslim League insisted that all Muslim representatives must be nominated by it alone. It was further complicated by the fact that Punjab Unionist Party headed by Malik Sir Khizr Hyat Khan including Muslim, Sikhs and Hindus claimed one of the Muslim seats on the proposed Council and was unwilling to submerge itself in the Muslim League or Congress Party.

On June 29, it was announced that the conference had adjourned to enable the delegates to carry on further consultations. The Working Committees of both the Congress and the Muslim League were summoned to meet at Simla on July 3 and 6 respectively.

On July 1, Lord Wavell invited Congress and the Muslim League to submit each a panel of not less than 8 or more than 12 members of their particular parties, the Scheduled Caste being asked to present 4 names and the Sikhs 3.

The Congress Working Committee decided to submit a list of 15 names for the Viceroy's consideration. The Congress President defined the principles that guided the committee in framing the list as (1) Selection of men of ability, (2) the desire not to confine the list to party members only, persons outside Congress being therefore included, (3) the inclusion in the list of representatives of as many minorities as possible.

On June 15, Mr. Jinnah informed the Viceroy that he was unable to submit a list of names unless certain conditions were guaranteed. The conditions were (1) the recognition of Muslim League's right to choose

the entire Muslim membership of the Council, (2) an assurance that Viceroy would overrule the majority decisions of the Council if these were opposed by the Muslim bloc for adversely affecting the Muslim community.

On July 14, the Viceroy announced to the final session of the conference that no agreement had been reached due to the disagreement on the allocation of seats on the Executive Council. Lord Wavell further said: "Conference has therefore failed. No body can regret more than myself. I wish to make it clear that the responsibility for the failure is mine. The main idea underlying the conference was mine. If it had succeeded, its success would have been attributed to me and I cannot place the blame for its failure upon any of the parties."

Mr. Jinnah made press statement on July 14 after the failure of the conference on the following terms—on final examination and analysis of the Wavell plan, we found it was a snare. There was combination consisting of Gandhi and the Hindu Congress, who stand for India's Hindu national independence as one India, the latest exponent of geographical unity, Lord Wavell, and the Glancy-Khizr combination who are bent upon creating disruption among Muslims in the Punjab. We were sought to be pushed in this arrangement, which if we had agreed to as proposed by Lord Wavell, we would have signed our death warrant. Next, in the proposed Executive Council, we would be reduced to a minority of one-third. All the other minorities such as the Scheduled Castes, Sikhs, Christians, have the same goal as Congress. They have their grievances as minorities, but their goal, and ideology is not and cannot be different from or otherwise than that of united India. Ethnically and culturally, they are very closely knitted to Hindu society. I am not against full justice being done to minorities and they should be fully safe-guarded and protected as such, but in actual working and practice, their vote will invariably be against us, and there is no safe-guard for us excepting the Viceroy's veto, which as is well-known to any constitutionalist, cannot be exercised lightly as an every day business against majority decision. On the top of this came the last straw on the camel's back, that even the 5 members of the Muslim *bloc*, which were allotted to us communal-wise, could not be nominated by the Muslim League. There were two claimants—Congress which claimed two and Glancy-Khizr group which on behalf of Punjab claimed one.

The Congress President Moulana A. K. Azad said in a press conference that he held Muslim League directly responsible and British Government 'remotely responsible' for the failure of the Simla Conference. If the British Government were really serious in their effort to settle the issue, they should have foreseen communal and other difficulties and should have been prepared to meet them. They should not have given the right of veto to any particular group to hold up the progress of the country. Those who are prepared to go forward, should be allowed to go forward and those who wished to keep out, should be left out. It was a great mistake to convene a conference on a communal background

Lifting of Congress Ban—After a lapse of nearly three years, with the announcement of Wavell Plan, all members of the Congress Working Committee were released and all bans on the Congress organisations throughout the country were gradually lifted.

Fresh Provincial and Centre elections—On August 21, Viceroy announced the fresh elections of all provincial Councils and also of the Central Assembly. The Congress fought both provincial and Central elections. The Congress contested the elections on the issue of immediate transference of power by the British Government and scored unique success in the elections. It has formed Ministry in Assam, N. W. F. P., Bihar, Orissa, Bombay, United Provinces and Central Provinces and Berar. It has also joined Coalition Ministry in Punjab. Assam, Punjab and N. W. F. P. which the Muslim League claims as Pakistan have come within Congress fold.

Second attempt of the Viceroy

After the general election in England at the conclusion of the World War II, which brought Labour Party in power, it seemed that Labour Party was willing to explore the possibility of solution of Indian deadlock. So it was announced on 21st August, 1945 that Viceroy at the invitation of the H. M.'s Government was proceeding for the second time for consultations for an interim government at the Centre. He arrived in London on August 26, 1945 and stayed until September 13. He arrived back in India on September 16 and on September 19 he broadcast as follows—

“After my recent discussions with H.M.G. in London, they authorized me to make the following announcement :—

“As stated in the gracious Speech from the Throne at the opening of Parliament, H.M.G. are determined to do their utmost to promote, in conjunction with leaders of Indian opinion, the early realization of full self-government in India. During my visit to London they have discussed with me the steps to be taken.

“An announcement has already been made that elections to the Central and Provincial Legislatures, so long postponed owing to the war, are to be held during the coming cold weather. Thereafter H.M.G. earnestly hope that Ministerial responsibility will be accepted by political leaders in all provinces.

“It is the intention of H.M.G. to convene, as soon as possible, a constitution-making body and, as a preliminary step, they have authorized

B.C.P.W.

Useful in

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ALL FORMS OF ANÆMIA

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me to undertake, immediately after the elections, discussions with representatives of the legislative assemblies in the provinces, to ascertain whether the proposals contained in the 1942 Declaration are acceptable, or whether some alternative or modified scheme is preferable. Discussions will also be undertaken with representatives of Ind. States with a view to ascertaining in what way they can best take their part in the constitution-making body.

"H.M.G. are proceeding to the consideration of the content of the treaty which will require to be concluded between Great Britain and India.

"During these preparatory stages, the Government of India must be carried on, and urgent economic and social problems must be dealt with. Furthermore, India has to play her full part in working out the new world order. H.M.G. have, therefore, further authorized me, as soon as the results of the provincial elections are published, to take steps to bring into being an Executive Council which will have the support of the main Indian parties."

Parliamentary Declaration—Lord Pathwick Lawrence made the following statement in the House of Commons—"They regard it as a matter of importance that members of our own Parliament should have an opportunity to meet leading political Indian personalities to learn their own views at first hand.

"They would also be able to convey in person the general wish and desire of the people of this country that India should speedily attain her full and rightful position as an independent partner state in the British Commonwealth and the desire of Parliament to do everything within our power to promote speedy attainment of that objective."

"His Majesty's Government are therefore arranging for a Parliamentary delegation to go to India under the auspices of the Empire Parliamentary Association.

MUSLIM LEAGUE IN 1945

Muslim League's Clarification of Pakistan issue

Speaking in Bombay on 10th December, 1945, Mr. Jinnah clarified the Pakistan issue in following terms:—

"Canada and the United States live together. Why cannot Hindus and Muslims?—I grant there may have to be many adjustments. It is possible that there will have to be exchange of populations, if it can be done on a purely voluntary basis. There will also doubtless have to be frontier adjustments where primarily Hindu and Muslim lands are contiguous to the Hindustan or Pakistan States as the case may be. All that can come, but first it is necessary to take the present provincial borders as the boundaries of the future Pakistan.

"Our Pakistan Government will probably be a federal government, modelled on the lines of autonomous provinces with the key power in matters of defence and foreign affairs, etc., at the Centre. But that will be for the Constitution-making body, to decide.

Pakistan as envisaged by Mr. Jinnah—Mr. Jinnah gave a further detailed description of the politically independent Sovereign Muslim State, Pakistan which the Muslim League seeks to establish in India to a correspondent of the Associated Press of America on 9th November, 1945—

Geographically—Pakistan would embrace all of the North-West Frontier, Baluchistan, Sind and Punjab provinces in North-West India. On the Eastern side of India would be the other portion of Pakistan composed of Bengal and Assam provinces.

Politically—Pakistan would be a democracy. Mr. Jinnah said that he personally hopes its major industries and public utility services would be socialized. The component States of Pakistan would have autonomy.

Economically—Mr. Jinnah contended that Pakistan, divided into two separated zones, is just as sound an undertaking as it would be as a country with all of its States in one block; that its natural resources and population would be sufficient to make it a great world Power.

"This would be a Muslim State as far as the Muslim is concerned, there would be no social barriers of any kind against Hindus or anyone else."

Hindu minorities—Hindu minorities in Pakistan "can rest assured that their rights will be protected. No civilised government can be run successfully without giving the minorities a complete sense of security and confidence. They must be made to feel that they have a hand in government and to do this they must have adequate representation in it. Pakistan will give this."

Simla Conference—The cause of the failure of the Simla Conference as given by Mr. Jinnah was as follows—(1) In the new Executive Council, Muslims will be a minority of one-third. (2) There is no adequate provision against the Congress forcing their decision by a majority vote against the Muslim Bloc. (3) No assurance from the Viceroy that all the Muslim members would be selected from the Muslim League. (4) "We cannot consider or enter into any provisional interim government unless declaration is made by the British Government guaranteeing the right of self-determination of Muslims and pledging that, after the war, or so soon as it may be possible, the British Government would establish Pakistan. (5) Muslims are not a minority but a nation and in any arrangement Muslims claim an equal number in the proposed Executive.

INDIAN NATIONAL ARMY

The formation of Indian National Army is an outstanding political event of India during the war. The facts of this Free Indian Army fighting for Indian independence in South East Asia and Burma were carefully blacked out by the British Government during the period of war and the

news gradually trickled out when British Government proposed to set up courts martial for trying the prominent leaders of the I. N. A. The story of I. N. A. fighting for India's freedom spread suddenly throughout the country and evoked an astonishing enthusiasm.

Investigation about the constitution and activities of the I.N.A. reveal that it was a force fully and methodically organized, down to the last detail, with a full and complete code of its own and full records of engagements fought. It is claimed to be an entirely voluntary army. At one stage it had 7,500 officers and 50,000 men. A target of 300,000 men was aimed at.

Members of the I.N.A. were pledged to free India from British power, using for this purpose, whatever help the Japanese could give. "Onward to Delhi" and "victory parade in the ancient fort of Delhi" were recurring slogans in the Army orders and other documents of which a number have been obtained. "Free India" was so whole-heartedly acknowledged as the objective, that the idea of allowing the Japanese to enter India in any role other than that of helpers was not thought of. When it was found that Japanese objectives did not exactly coincide with the I.N.A.'s friction arose.

The main terms of the pledge signed by each member of the force were as follows :—

"I hereby voluntarily and of my free will join and enlist myself in the Indian National Army. I solemnly and sincerely dedicate myself to India and hereby pledge my life for her freedom. I will serve India and the Indian independence movement to my fullest capacity, even at the risk of my life. In serving the country, I will seek no personal advantage for myself. I will regard all Indians as my brothers and sisters without distinction of religion, language or territory."

Complete loyalty to and faith in Subhas Bose—known throughout the Force as "Netaji"—animated the men. Communal and religious differences were entirely absent. Regiments were named after Gandhi and Jawaharlal. "Jai Hind" were words of greeting with which officers and men saluted.

The organizers of the Force had money made available to them in plenty, it is said. Nearly Rs. 8,00,00,000 are believed to have been collected. But equipment was scarce and supplies depended on primitive means of transport, which though suited to the conditions of fighting in the Burma jungles, were slow and uncertain. Once or twice, supplies ran so short that large sections of the Force lived on leaves and grass, while the British and Indian forces opposing them had supplies dropped to them by planes.

When the area round Kohima was captured by the Japanese in 1944 a civil administration under the Azad Hind Government was established. The plan thereafter was that the I.N.A. should establish itself first in Assam & Bengal and gradually extend its authority to other parts of India.

Mr. Subhas Chandra Bose left India secretly through Afganistan on December, 1941 and from that date its wonderful history begins :—We give the main happenings in chronological order :—

- June 22, 1942—Indian Freedom Congress met at Bangkok and decided to form an Indian Independence League for the whole of Greater East Asia with branches in Japan, China, Philippines, India, Malaya, Burma, Siam, Indo-china, with an Executive Committee under the Chairmanship of Rashbehari Bose.
- Sept. 1, 1942—First Indian National Army formally came into existence under Capt. Mohan Singh.
- Dec., 1942—First Indian National Army under Capt. Mohan Singh dissolved due to his refusal to work subordinate to the Japanese.
- May 19, 1943—Subash Bose received by Hitler and Ribbontrop in Berlin.
- June 19, 1943—Subhas Bose arrived Tokio and conferred with General Tojo, the Japanese Premier
- June 24, 1944—Indian Independence League inaugurated.
- July 2, 1943—Subhas Bose arrives at Singapore.
- July 4, 1943—Conference of Indian Independence League opened at Singapore with Indian delegates from Japan, Manchukuo, Hongkong, Indo-china, Burma, Malaya etc. and elected Subhas Bose as President.
- July 5, 1943—Indian Independence League announced the formation of an Indian National Army to fight the 'oppressors of India' and Subhas Bose assumed the title of *Netaji* in his capacity as President of the Independence League whose slogan would be *Jai Hind*.
- Oct., 21, 1943—Provisional Government of Azad Hind was proclaimed at Singapore under the leadership of Subhas Chandra Bose.
- Oct., 22, 1943—Rani Jhansi Regiment camp inaugurated.
- Oct., 25, 1943—Azad Hind Government declared war against Britain and United States of America.
- Provisional Government was recognised by the Governments of Croatia, Manchukuo, Germany, Italy, China, Thailand, the Philippines and Burma.
- Nov., 6, 1943—At the Assembly of Greater East Asiatic Nations at Tokio, Japanese Prime Minister, General Tojo declared "I take this occasion to declare that Imperial Government of Japan is ready shortly to place Andamans and Nicobar Islands of Indian territory, now under the occupation of the Imperial Japanese Forces, under the jurisdiction of the Provisional Government of Azad Hind as the initial evidence of her intention to help in India's struggle for freedom. These islands were named *Shahid* and *Swaraj Islands*.

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SOOTHING
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March 18, 1944—Advanced units of Azad Hind Fauz with Imperial Nippon Army crossed the Indo-Burma border and "the fight for India's liberation thereupon commenced on Indian soil."

March, 22, 1944—Portions of Manipur and Vishnupur consisting of an area of 150,000 Sq. miles were being administered by Azad Hind Fauj under the Governor, General Chatterjee.

April 24, 1945—Azad Hind Government leaves Rangoon for Bangkok.

May, 3, 1945—I. N. A. surrenders to the British.

INDIAN & INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS —AN INTERPRETATION

(Specially written by Mr. Suresh Chandra Deb.)

A War of Survival

1945 of the Christian era will be long remembered as the year during which guns and cannons ceased fire after about six years in battlefields in areas as far apart as Britain in north-east Atlantic and China and the islands of the Pacific. It would be pleasant to believe that with the return of peace men, women and children who have had their freedom curtailed in many unimaginable ways, who had been called upon to make the greatest of sacrifices in life and limb, the common men and women of the world, would be able to hope and work for a better life undisfigured by jealousies and greeds that are the breeding-ground of all wars. During these six years of the Second World War leaders of States, leaders of thought all the world over, have tried to give a generalized idea of the influences that worked towards this outburst of the elemental passions in human hearts. This was as valid and as appealing as those that had moved the generation that were called upon to fight Kaiser Wilhelm's challenge to the world hegemony held by Britain. During these years many have tried to give a name to this war. British propagandists have tried to popularize the idea that it was Hitler's War just as the last great war was called the Kaiser's War. But the historian who has been able to rise above the controversies of the present, who can think and write unswayed by national prepossessions, will have to say that the war was caused by European revolt against the system of monopoly that British has been enjoying since almost the middle of the 18th century. Napoleon Bonaparte made the first attempt to break it, Kaiser Wilhelm the second and Adolf Hitler the third. All these have to outer seeming failed. Failed because the various racial and cultural groups in the continent of Europe could not find a centre round which they would revolve, consenting to forego many of their particularistic conceits and ambitions. Perhaps, it is not in human nature to make such a sacrifice; perhaps, the need for such a unity has not yet been realized by the generality of the European population. The First World War appears to have intensified these differences. The break-up of the Austrian Empire, for instance, demonstrated this aspect of the matter; the "succession" States—Czechoslovakia, Jugoslavia, Hungary—

proved their instability in that continent. European statesmen, even those who had battled against and defeated the Kaiser's ambitions, soon came to realize that the unbalance created by the Versailles and the Triannon treaties would lead to a greater outburst. Their fears took shape when Germany under the leadership of Adolf Hitler renewed the fight for restoring the balance and regaining the poise in European affairs. This is the only interpretation that can explain the last thousand years of this continent's history during which the Celt and the Teuton and the Slav have been wrestling to gain domination, to act as the instrument of destiny for the establishment of peace in Europe beyond the North Sea, beyond the English Channel. Britain tried her hand and invented or adopted the "balance of power" theory to preserve a semblance of peace in the continental area to which she geographically belongs, though her main interests lie in Asia and Africa and Oceania.

Japan's Ambitions

In Asia she had been supreme for about a century. The rise of Japan required a revision of her ideas and policies. And in the opening years of the present century the Land of the Rising Sun as Japan came to be known was complimented as the "Britain of the East"; a community of destiny appeared to bind the two islands—one in north-east Atlantic and the other in the heart of the Pacific. Public men and publicists in both the islands hailed such an evolution in international affairs as a guarantee of peace, as a renovating factor in the life of Asia. For twenty-five years this propaganda held the imagination of these two "master races." But with the outbreak of the First World War Japan showed that she had been dreaming other dreams and seeing other visions. Her "21 Demands" presented to the first President of the Chinese Republic, Yuan Shi-Kai, indicated the direction of her ambitions; she wanted to reduce China to a "puppet" State whose illimitable resources could be organised under Japanese direction for establishing the "Imperial Way" over the far spaces of the earth. But for fifteen years and more Britain and the United States turned the blind eye to Japanese pretensions; by the utterances and activities of their politicians and diplomats the world was led to believe that they did recognise Japan's "special position" in the Pacific area, specially what was created by her geographical contiguity to China. They appeared to accept the logic of the aspirations given expres-

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sion to by Marquis Ito, one of the makers of modern Japan, in 1900. He could anticipate that "the merchants and manufacturers of the world will fight their future battles for commercial supremacy" in China, that if the Japanese industrialists and their agents failed "to plant, to root themselves in the soil of China," their national existence itself may be menaced. Mr. Leopold Amery, a leader of the British Conservative Party, when the report of the Lytton Commission was being discussed in the House of Commons (1933) said: "... who is there amongst us to cast the first stone and to say that Japan ought not to have acted with the object of creating peace and order in Manchuria and defending herself against the continued aggression of vigorous Chinese nationalism? Our whole policy in India, in Egypt stands condemned if we condemn Japan."

Four Freedoms

This dialect of imperialism is framed in the same words whether these be uttered by yellow or white lips. The world, therefore, could not be taken in by Anglo-American declarations that the Second World War of the 20th century opened out prospects of the various "freedoms," the idealistic aspirations expressed by the late President Roosevelt. The first was "freedom of speech and expression—everywhere in the world"; the second was "freedom of every person to worship God in his own way—everywhere in the world"; the third was "freedom from want..... which will secure to every nation a healthy peace-time life for its inhabitants everywhere"; the fourth was "freedom from fear, which translated into world terms, means a world-wide reduction of armaments..... in such a thorough fashion that no nation will be in a position to commit an act of physical aggression against any neighbour anywhere in the world." These ideas and ideals were later on elaborated in the announcement which has come to be known as the "Atlantic Charter."

Power Politics—"Big Five."

Since these idealistic statements were made, Britain and the United States have had to fight their war of survival as great Powers against Japan. A "United Nations" organisation has been set up consisting of States, great and small, which accepted the principles and policies enunciated in Mr. Roosevelt's speeches and in the "Atlantic Charter." During these years the three leaders of the United Nations have tried to enlist on their side world opinion by loud-mouthed allegiance to these "Freedoms". They have tried to give them concrete shape in the "Charter" framed in the city of San Francisco. And the world would be justified if it tried to test these in the crucible of our experience of the "Big Three" in their day-to-day practices. A London Weekly, the *Economist*, organ of the "City" in London, of the "Big Business" of Britain, had been honest in prophesying in August, 1941, that "there may well be disastrous divergences of interpretation in the hour of victory." That prophecy had come

true even before the hour of victory struck. In the fourth week of April, 1945, was sitting at the Pacific city of San Francisco the meeting of delegates from more than 45 "United Nations", held to accept and ratify the "United Nations" Charter of human rights and responsibilities. The world had been led to hope that the "United Nations" Organisation would represent in its highest executive representatives of its member States with equal powers shared by all Powers, great and small, that the great Powers will not be allowed to monopolize the authority of the Organisation. But these hopes have proved to be liars. The "Big Five" have emerged to lord it over the world—the United States, the Soviet Union, Great Britain, France and China.

Two Philosophies in Conflict

Anglo-American public men and publicists have tried to simplify for us the issue of the Second World War by saying that two philosophies of life and thought are locked up in this particular fight, that the ideologies of Democracy and Totalitarianism were at grips trying to capture the minds of the modern man and woman. Two leaders of European thought, one a Briton and the other a Spaniard, Middleton Murray and Don Salvador de Madriga, have tried to explain the elements that constituted this antithesis. Both of them are Liberals in the 19th century European sense of the word. Both of them described the process of the decline of this Liberalism which was during the last century the most progressive force in the world, flowing out of the enlightenment of the French Revolution. The "harmonious society of nationalist parliamentary democracies" had secured political liberty to the people; but economic security has been absent. The Spanish thinker thus indicated this defect of Liberalism in the world of thought and conduct:

"Uncorrected by some kind of balancing principle, Liberalism leads to anarchical behaviour, selfish fastidiousness and a complete atomization of the individual whose psychic life, cut off from the common soul, wanders in æsthetic frustration or strays in psycho-analytical misery. This explains why so many intellectuals have sought relief in communism and even why, far from being deterred by its dogmatic and orthodox ways, they have eagerly shut themselves into the rigid tenets of the Sovietic Church."

Middleton Murray was less psychological in his interpretation. He judged the modern tendency by the results as these have been developing before us. The world has been left in no doubt that "totalitarianism" explicitly repudiated "the theory of the responsible person on which representative democracy is based." The believers in Totalitarianism declare that ".....the free and enlightened citizen of democratic theory is an illusion; he does not exist. The ordinary member of a modern nation...is quite incapable of the responsible freedom with which democratic theory credits him. He does not want it; it is useless

to him if he has it ; and he does not mind if it is taken from him. What he does want is something more material ; he wants security ... what the mass-man wants ... is a strong leader about whom he can feel enthusiasm and from whom he can expect protection."

Russo-German War—a mere episode.

The interpretation attempted above may not give us the whole picture of the conflict of imponderables that disturbs the peace of the modern world. Whether we are satisfied with it or not, the more important question in the context of world developments was that world "Totalitarianism" stood bifurcated during the last war, that one part of it, National Socialism, attacked the other, Bolshevism or Communism, and drove the latter into the arms of Democracy, for safety and survival. This concert of two incompatibles, Democracy and Communistic Totalitarianism, has for the time being defeated the National Socialism of Germany, thus leaving the world to a further trial of strength between "representative democracy" and "totalitarian communism." The experiences of the last eight months since the downfall of Hitlerite Germany have created fears in many minds that the seeds of the Third World War of the 20th century are being sown so soon after the Second, before the signs of the blood and tears of the latter have had time to be erased.

Soviet Union a question mark

Even those who can get out of these impediments to reaching truth will have to explain why the Soviet Union should have snatched from the Polish State, formed after the defeat of Germany in the First World War, areas that belonged to it, why Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania should have almost been grabbed into the Soviet Union as constituent States ; why the Soviet rulers should be found encouraging the separatist movement in Azerbaijan in northern Iran, why they should be inspiring the Armenians in Turkey to secede from her ; why they should be demanding a revision of the Montreaux Convention that had recognised the guardianship of the Turkish Republic over the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, the water-ways out into the Eastern Mediterranean. It has been suggested that self-defence has been the motive of these encroachments. There is reason in the suggestion if we accept the theory that in the name of defence a great Power has the right to make inroads on the sovereignty of her neighbours. This contradicts the spirit of all the declarations of the leaders of the "United Nations" and the practice in state-craft that they have promised to pursue under the Atlantic Charter and onwards. In Clause IV of the Declaration of the Moscow Conference (1943) appeared the recognition of the necessity of "a general international organisation" to be based on "the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving States." The activities of the Moscow rulers appear to repudiate the spirit of this Declaration, and the practice—the new practice—that was to characterise international relations.

"Concert" of Big Three?

The outcome of the "United Nations" Conference point out unerringly to the fact that the "Big Three," the United States, the Soviet Union and Great Britain, have reverted to the old position of the "Concert of Europe" that took shape at the Congress of Vienna after the end of the Napoleonic wars and that maintained peace in Europe for about forty years. The frame-up of the world organisation that is to rule our destiny for the next few years is postulated on the recognition of a indisputable fact—"the military might of the Great Powers." But the inconclusiveness of the Potsdam Conference attended by President Truman, by Marshal Stalin, by Mr. Churchill, the breakdown of the Foreign Ministers' Conference held at London in September-October 1945, the argument hotly canvassed in the World's Press that the members of the "Big Three" do not find it possible to see eye to eye with one another, that there appears to be a line-up of the United States and Britain directed against the Soviet Union, that the territorial acquisitions of the Soviet Union at the expense of its neighbouring States revive the spirit and practice of Tsarist Russia which did things in the name of Slav culture that are being done today in the name of communist culture—all these indicate how uncertain is the future.

Jap-American Conflict

But for a proper understanding of the world situation we have to turn to Asia as it was being affected by the unspoken rivalry between Japan and the United States of America, and ask why the latter should have constituted herself as the guardian of the *status quo* in Asia while the sister continent of Europe was on the eve of unbelievable transformations. The defeat of France in June 1940 left Britain alone amongst the great Powers to face the might of victorious Germany. Their imperial possessions in the heart of the Pacific Ocean, on the mainland of eastern and southern Asia, lay open to the aspiring imperialism of Japan. As soon as the news of the Dutch debacle was flashed over the ether, the then Foreign Minister of Japan, Mr. Hachiro Arita, gathered in his parlour representatives of the Foreign Press and indicated to them the reactions of these disastrous developments in Europe on the policy and purpose of his Government.

"The Japanese Government cannot but be deeply concerned over any development accompanying the aggravation of the war in Europe that may affect the *status quo* of the Netherlands Indies."

Quick came the reply to this declaration from the Secretary of State of the United States, Mr. Cordell Hull, President Roosevelt's Foreign Secretary.

"Intervention in the affairs of the Netherlands Indies or any alteration of their *status quo* by other than peaceful processes would be prejudicial to the cause of stability, peace and security not only in the region of the Netherlands Indies, but in the entire Pacific area.

United States had encouraged Japan

This declaration on behalf of the United States laid the pattern of the argument and controversy that came to be exchanged between Washington and Tokyo till Japan attacked the United States without a declaration of war. She believed that as France and Holland had gone down before her Axis partner in Europe and Britain was certain to follow suit, their possessions in East Asia were hers to take and make use of. She was naive enough, perhaps, to believe that as United States President, Theodore Roosevelt, had advised in 1905 the Japanese Ambassador, Viscount Kaneka, to establish some sort of a 'Monroe Doctrine' over east Asia, she could expect from his cousin, President Franklin Roosevelt, thirty-five years later, connivance of her coming into the inheritance of the possessions of Dutch, French and British imperialisms in this region. Successive administrations of the United States had been pursuing the same policy. Japan's paramount interest had been recognised over Korea, leading to the establishment in 1910 of a "protectorate" over the "Hermit Kingdom" as Korea was then known, and its absorption into the Japanese Empire in 1911. Secretary of State Bryan in the first Woodrow Wilson administration declared in 1915 that "territorial contiguity creates special relations between Japan and these territories" (South Manchuria and Eastern Mongolia). In 1917 Secretary of State Lansing was led to emphasise that "Japan had special interest in China, particularly in the parts to which her possessions are contiguous." Ambassador Castle representing the U.S.A. Government at the Court of the Mikado capped the policy of his country as he declared in 1930 that "Japan must be and will be the guardian of peace in the Pacific." These recognitions of Japan's paramount interest in east Asia could not be dismissed as aberrations of an individual U. S. Administration; they represented the consistent policy of the United States for about a quarter of a century and more. And would it be a far-fetched interpretation if the student of affairs felt that the United States' ruling classes had raised certain hopes in Japanese hearts which at the end of 1941 appeared to have come within the range of fulfilment? The great Republic had tolerated the colonialism of Britain, France and Holland in east Asia. Historic developments in Europe in 1940 appeared to be working towards its liquidation. It was natural for Japan to hope that in the vacuum created thereby she was entitled as anybody else in east Asia to step into the shoes of the European Powers that had lost grip over their possession in this area.

Example of European Powers

The history of these years needs to be summarized to understand and explain the genesis of Japanese hopes and ambitions. The processes by which the European Powers began to carve out "colonies", acquire ports, naval bases, "spheres of influence" in Japan's neighbourhood began in 1842—when the British extracted Hongkong as "reparation" for China's impudence in opposing the British right of selling opium to the Chinese

people. In 1860 Tsarist Russia forced from China signature to a Convention by which she gained 3,60,000 miles of Chinese territory, including 600 miles of coast line on the Pacific on which stands the Vladivostock of today; in 1862 Britain annexed Lower Burma (part of a tributary kingdom to China); by the Chefoo Convention of 1876 "the virtual control of the Yang-tze Valley fell into her hands"; in 1884-85 Annam became a French Protectorate; in 1886 Britain annexed Upper Burma; Portugal seized Macao in 1887; British over-lordship over Sikkim was recognised by China in 1890; Great Britain and France declared Siam "independent" in 1893-94, and the "formal tribute" to China was stopped the next year; out of the first Sino-Japanese war in modern times (1894-95) Japan got Formosa, and Korea was declared "independent." In 1898-99, Britain, Russia and France reaped a bumper harvest of Chinese territories through leases terminable at the end of 25 or 99 years, and Germany got Tsingtao. Thus by 1899 "in all Chinas' 3,000 miles of coast-line there was not a harbour she could mobilize her ships in without the consent of the foreigner," to quote the bitterly restrained words of a Chinese writer. In 1900 Russia occupied Manchuria; in 1904 Britain invaded Tibet, a Chinese dependency, and Japan by defeating Russia inherited much of her possessions. And it was not unnatural for Japan to regard the extension of European influence into her neighbourhood as, under certain conceivable circumstances, a threat to her own life, to her political and economic interests.

Expansive Forces within Japan.

Apart from this external influence, there were developments inside Japan that hastened her excursions into foreign adventures in the fields of industry, commerce and what has come to be known as imperialism, administration and exploitation of foreign countries for the benefit of the "mother country." Britain had pioneered this technique of imperialism and the European countries had been eager imitators, thus acknowledging her as their guide and philosopher. Japan came to be accepted into the comity of modern nations as one of their leaders after she had earned the title at the battle-fields of Manchuria and at the naval fight of Port Arthur, in the battle of Shimonesiki during the Russo-Japanese war (1904-05). All these appreciations were underlined by successive administrations of the United States. But from 1931 when Japan started on her Manchurian adventure and established the new State of Manchukuo, there came a change over the policy of the United States Government. The then Secretary of State Stimson was the most outspoken opponent of the Japanese aggression who tried to combine Anglo-American power and prestige to build up a common front against this new-comer into imperialist exploitation of Asiatic territories, specially of China. But Britain failed to rise up to the occasion.

The American Century

Why did the United States become less benevolent to Japanese hopes, aspirations and ambitions? It is quite possible that her industrialists and

commerce people resented the way in which the Japanese authorities had smothered all American industry and commerce in the State of Manchukuo, in Korea, and in the provinces of north-east China where they were in effective control of the administrative machinery. It is on record that they apprehended the same fate for their interests if and when Japan had made good her threat to the integrity of China, to her sovereign independence, leading to the closing of the market supplied by more than 400 millions of Chinese. This may be putting too selfish an interpretation on the motives of the ruling classes of the United States. Human activities are never motivated by unmixed feelings and ideas; materialism and idealism, selfishness and generosity combine to influence human conduct. The help of the United States extended to China in her fight for survival, the relation of "mutual selfishness" that has been strengthened thereby, have thus a place in the history of this period that no interpreter of events can avoid noticing. The helplessness of Britain both in Europe and Asia supplied another motive force to the activities of the American people and their Governments. Long before the time we have been trying to interpret the ruling classes of the great Republic had come to recognise that Britain and all that she stood for in the modern world had become "the first line of defence" of the values of life that they valued most—democracy and free enterprise. They had been feeling that the Totalitarianism, whether designated as National Socialism in Germany, as Communism in the Soviet Union or "the Imperial Way" in Nippon (Japan) would not leave them free fields to be utilised for the enrichment of their own life and that of the world outside. The First World War had demonstrated that their country was expected to be a "big brother" to European peoples, to under-write their imperialism in Asia and Africa. Even during this period leaders of thought and of practical affairs did not fail to recognise that the leadership of the world by the United States was inescapable, that the 20th century would be the "American Century." Bertrand Russel in his book—*Prospects of Industrial Civilisation*—discussing the possibilities of the future said that "the next Power to make a bid for world empire will be America"; as yet she might not "consciously desire such a position." Politicians and diplomats of the United States do not, however, seem to be as unconscious of the place to which destiny appeared to be beckoning their country. Joseph Davis, Ambassador to Britain during World War I, writing to President Wilson in 1917 said:

"The future of the world belongs to us. The English are spending their capital.... Now, what are we going to do with the leadership of the world presently when it clearly falls into our hands? And how can we use the British for the highest uses of democracy?"

Anglo-American Interdependence

Mr. Davis has lived to see his country pushed forward to the position of which he had provision in 1917. The process, begun during those days, has come full circle during the Second World War.

Speculations built upon facts like these cannot be ignored if we want to have a concrete picture of the shape of things to come in the sphere of international relationship. Mr. Churchill had welcomed in 1940 the idea that "the British Empire and the United States will have to be somewhat mixed up together in some of their affairs".....; he had compared this process to the "rolling on" of the Mississippi, as natural. American students of affairs have tried to give a concrete shape to this mix-up in books and pamphlets that reveal how they visualize the position of their country in the future of power politics. One of these studies entitled *Relations with Britain* was prepared by a Committee headed by Raymond Leslie Buell, editor of the American weekly, *Fortune*, with the co-operation of the editorial staff of the two other weeklies—*Time* and *Life*. The Committee obtained advice and criticism from diplomats of the "United Nations", from "U. S. officials and many an expert on world affairs, internationalists and isolationists alike." The purpose of this round table discussion was to arrive at "conclusions" that would approach near to the reality of post-war social, economic and political developments. The Committee's conclusions were based on three "frank assumptions":

- (i) The "United Nations" will win the war;
- (ii) That in the post-war world the centre of gravity and economic power will rest in the U.S.A.;
- (iii) That a peaceful world cannot be attained without "profound collaboration between the U.S.A. and Britain."

Material ties bind them

The economic programme framed by the Committee had two facets. One frankly recognised that the British Empire furnishes "the markets and supplies the materials which can keep the Western Hemisphere a going concern," to quote from a book written by Percy Bidwell, Director of Studies, Council of Foreign Relations and Arthur Upgren, Associate Professor of Economics at the School of Business Administration in the University of Minnesota. The book is significantly called—*A Trade Policy for National Defence*. The national interests of the United States required that the British Empire should be preserved as "a political entity" so that "its markets may remain open to our exporters" and "its raw materials may remain accessible to our importers." In these words are indicated the interest of the United States in the economic life of the 500 millions that live under the British Crown. The other facet of the Buell Committee's programme touched on two conceptions of economic and social organisation that divide the modern world and may well prove to be the seed-plots of a new war. The Committee asserted these to be "convictions" that had influenced their recommendations. These were:

- (i) That the free enterprise system must be made safe against any assault of collectivism;
- (ii) That a "free market area" must be established between the United States and the United Kingdom aimed towards universal free trade as the ultimate goal of a peaceful world.

U. S. A.—heir to Britain ?

There is a frankness in these interpretations that is helpful in understanding the movement of forces that make and remake epochs in human history. For two hundred years Britain has set the pattern of a world leadership. That epoch appears to be coming to an end, and another country is rising over the horizon to lead the world to new adventures. Britain has been called upon to deliver her sceptre to a country whose population is predominantly Anglo-Saxon; the ruling classes of which are Anglo-Saxon in racial texture and Protestant in religious faith. This kinship between Britain and the United States is a permanent factor that must influence international affairs through all their mutations. It is this kinship and the identity of material interests forged thereby that have led the people of the United States to throw the weight of their power and prestige, of their scientific and industrial equipment, on the side of Britain on two occasions in course of twenty-five years. It is not necessary to go further back to prove that in the conflicts and competitions of modern life Britain and the United States will be found to be of one mind, however virulent the surface differences between them may be to mislead the student and interpreter of human affairs. The months since the defeat of Germany and Japan have demonstrated this fact. Britain and the United States have differed and differed in public. This has happened because Britain has found it difficult to adjust herself quickly enough and graciously enough to the changed order of things. In spite of these differences between these two of the "Big Three," the Soviet Union, the other aspirant of leadership in shaping the world on newer foundations, has sensed it all right that the Anglo-Saxon Bloc would not facilitate her entry into the charmed circle. This can be the only explanation why the Foreign Ministers of the United States, the Soviet Union and Britain should have broken up their Conference held at London sometime in September-October (1945) in failure. They have tried to make a show of retrieving the position at the Moscow Conference that has ended during the last week of 1945. The interests with which Britain is most concerned, as for instance, Persia and the countries which are included in what European diplomats call the Near and Middle East—Turkey and the Arab countries including Palestine—appear to have had no place in the agenda of the Moscow Conference. This is regarded as a "set back" to Britain. And the *Economist* makes a grievance of the fact that as "the smallest of the Big Three," Britain should not have "the independence and freedom of action of either America and Russia." It is not easy to appreciate the reason for this growl when we find the United States consenting to share the burden of the responsibilities created by the acts of commission and omission on the part of Britain as the Mandatory Power charged with the "trust territory" of Palestine. The alignment of forces indicated by us here is writ large in contemporary history. The world must learn to get habituated to it. For good or for evil it will hold good for a number of years till the leading nations of the world have had time to recover from the losses in men and money sustained during World War II of the 20th Century.

Britain's special interest in "Middle East"

The story carried so far has been confined within the power politics of the "Big Three." The two Powers that challenged their hegemony are down and out. And we do not know if within Germany and Japan there are any elements that can become centres of opposition to them within a time that the present generation can measure. The "Big Three" also do not appear to be anxious about them. Britain as the one country that has suffered the most and the longest during the six years of the present war has her own internal and external problems to cause headache to her rulers. She being in possession of the major surface of the earth is most open to the attacks of aspiring nations, those that desire to have chunks of the territories under her control, direct or indirect. There are others which find in Britain the greatest stumbling block to their march to independent Statehood. The Arab countries have come into the picture most prominently during the year under review. The Arab League is an organisation of the ruling classes of the countries some of which derive financial benefit from the British Treasury and are thus amenable to the control and guidance of the British Foreign Office. The chief beneficiaries are the kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the kingdom of Iraq, the Principality of Trans-Jordan and the Mandatory of Palestine. Egypt is on the border line of a dependency and an independent State. Two other countries in the membership of the Arab League were under French "mandate." This authority appears to have got attenuated, so much so that Syria and Lebanon would be fully independent States but for their dependence on "external" Powers for the defence of their integrity; they are having an independent status today because the Powers who could dominate over them are not agreed as to who should be allowed to do this job. But the independence of many of Turkey's "succession States" is qualified by dependence upon the British Treasury even for the normal financing of their administration. As things look at present, circumstances have been forcing Britain to go into partnership with the United States for the up-keep of this heavy responsibility. We have seen that America oil deals in the Middle East are being interpreted as independent transactions that are antagonistic to British interests; that these Muslim States have been playing off each one of the "Big Three" against one another and thus trying to preserve their precarious independence. Turkey's integrity is threatened by the Soviet Union. Iran is being subjected to pressure from the same quarter. Syria and Lebanon have been claiming their freedom from French domination. Palestine and Iraq and Egypt have been straining at the leash held by Britain. The Soviet Union appears to be encouraging these freedom movements. In the anarchy of demands and ambitions it is not easy to trace the process by which stability will return to this area. Abdul Aziz Ibn Saud, King of Arabia, pensioner of Britain, may have a big say in the matter. But even now he cannot expect to stand on his own as the dominant Power in the area which will be accepted as their leader by the Kingdoms, Principalities and Emirates surrounding

it. In the atom bomb age religious kinship and the strength built upon it cannot stand against the science and equipment of the three Powers that appear to monopolize these amongst themselves. If the world is not to slide down into another war, some sort of an arrangement will have to be made by the "Big Three" to restrain their own particular ambitions and those of their proteges in this region of the earth. The peace of the world depends on such a co-operative effort to modernize the peoples of north-west Asia and north Africa, to pull them out of the 10th century to the 20th in course of the next decade or two.

Soviet Union & her neighbours

British propagandists have been stirring up or adding to the fears of the peoples of this area, including Afghanistan, that the age-long gravitation of the Russian State towards the Mediterranean Sea, the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean has started again after a short interval of less than twenty years. In 1921 the Soviet Union appeared to have blazed a new trail when its new rulers denounced the "tyrannical policy carried out by the colonising government of Russia," to quote the words from the treaty between the Soviet Union and Persia (1921). The same spirit informed all the other treaties with Afghanistan, Bokhara and Turkey in 1926, with China in 1924. Since then with the sense of growing strength in her far-flung territories and their planned development for purposes of modern industrialism and modern warfare, the ruling class of the Soviet State have been trying to spread the wings of her influence and prestige over her weaker neighbours. For about fifteen years we have been hearing of their help to the Chinese Communist Party as a counter-poise to the Kuomintang, the Party founded by Sun Yat-Sen for freeing China from foreign domination. With the end of the war with Japan (August, 1945), the Soviet Union and China have entered into a new agreement and understanding, the details of which are not yet known. The months since then have been characterized by controversy between the Communist Party and the Government of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek with regard to the democratization of the State in China. The real points of dispute appear to have been two—on the side of the Government the contention was pressed that army formations controlled by the Communist Party should come under the unified command of the Government. On the side of the Communist Party the demand was advanced that the single party Government that the Kuomintang had conducted should cease now that China has freed herself from foreign domination, now that the First Principle of the Founder of the Chinese Republic has been realized; that now was the time to give concrete shape to the two other principles—democracy and socialism. As we write the news has been broadcast that an agreement has been reached in China, though the implications of the agreement will take time to be clearly indicated. China has yet to find her feet both economically and politically. She appears to be balancing herself between the Soviet Union and the United States; her Communist Party will be

drawing her towards her neighbour in the north and west ; the Kuomintang and other parties towards the country on the other side of the Pacific.

Indonesia's struggle for freedom

The victory of the Allied Powers over Germany, Italy and Japan has not brought peace to the "dependent" peoples of the world nor restored self-respect to them. In south-east Asia was demonstrated this betrayal of their hopes when Holland, supported by Britain, tried to re-impose her rule over the Dutch East Indies. Opposition to this has flared up in armed revolt, and round Dr. Mahommed Soekarno and Dr. Hatta the nationalist forces of the islands have gathered, and their epic fight against the imperialistic hosts has opened a new chapter in Asia's struggle for political freedom. About sixty millions of people live in the islands, the majority of them Muslims. Rubber, sugar and oil make their wealth. And though the Dutch are in political control, in the economic exploitation of this wealth Dutch capital has long been linked up with British. This alliance has made for the co-operation of these two imperialist Powers in all other fields of human endeavour. And we have seen it suggested that but for Britain's help Dutch rule in the Pacific area would long ago have vanished. This interpretation appears to have a semblance of reality when we find Britain declaring that she was under some sort of "moral" obligation to Holland to render help to the latter in regaining her rule over these Pacific islands. The presence of British troops in Indo-China and Siam bears testimony to the truth of this opinion. The former has been formally under French protection, the latter fell under the French "sphere of influence", though it had celebrated its formal independence by restoring the name of the country as "Thiland"—the land of the Thai people—the land of the free. We do not see how France can re-impose her rule over the area without the connivance of the United States and the support of Britain. And the world would not be surprised if out of this turmoil Britain emerged as the beneficiary.

India & Asia

But one cannot be positive. For everything is in the melting pot ; and it is not easy to say how the political picture of the many countries in east Asia, south of China, will appear in the new world structure under

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BRONCHIAL CATARRH

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the aegis of the U.N.O. But there is no doubt that many things will hinge upon India, whether or not the four hundred millions of India will be able to throw off the shackles of political subjection, whether or not they cease to allow their country to be used as the arsenal and recruiting ground of British imperialism.

British Policy—"Agreement" among Indians

We will conclude this study by tracing the many developments on which India has been moving since the end of 1944. The first day of 1945 did not rise over the country with any hope of relief from the regime of frustration that seemed to have settled on her life. Economically a prey to the profiteer and the hoarder, politically under the heels of Defence of India Rules, symbol of the alien administration heedless of India's interests and scornful of India's self-respect, the country appeared to have accepted defeat as the portion of its life. Since his release from detention in May, 1944, Gandhiji has been assiduous in trying to resolve the deadlock that has overtaken the country. He approached Lord Wavell, the Governor General, directly and indirectly; getting no favourable response he approached Mr. M. A. Jinnah, President of the All-India Muslim League, to come to an agreement with him, paving the way to a wider agreement between all the various interests in the country. The Government in Britain and in India have been insisting that only when all these interests have been able to present an agreed solution of the many claims and conflicts, only then can they agree to transfer power and responsibility to a representative Indian Government. In arriving at this agreement the Government may have no part to play; the leaders of political life in India must find the "agreement in principle between Hindus, Muslims and all important elements as to the method by which the new constitution should be framed", to quote from Lord Wavell's reply to Gandhiji in course of a letter dated August 15, 1944. It may be hard for an Indian publicist to resist the temptation of retorting that the absence of agreement that is made today as the excuse for denying or delaying democratic freedom in India was to a large extent traceable to the policy of the British Government.

Muslim League Policy—Inchoate

To revert to our internal differences. The Gandhi-Jinnah talks in September (1944) failed because the leader of the Muslim League would not recognise any other minority interests that have their domicile in the areas which are in his contemplation as falling within his scheme of continuous Muslim territory to form the nucleus of his State or States in the western and eastern "Zones" of India. His refusal to accept common or joint plebiscite of all the peoples of the areas concerned, his insistence on having the matter settled by the votes of the Muslims of the areas alone, showed that Mr. Jinnah and his followers have had no rationalized

idea of contructing a modern State. For three years and more the Muslim League and its members have consistently refused to define and give a concrete picture of the shape of the country if their scheme is accepted. They appeared to have hoped that everything would remain as it was, that the present boundaries of the Provinces would remain undisturbed, that the only thing that would change was that the Provinces where the Muslims were in a majority will just be constituted into separate States, and the problem raised in India by the needs of minority interests, by their conceits and ambitions, would be solved. The Muslim League postulate was that by "any definition or test of a nation", the Hindus and the Muslims in India are two "major nations" which cannot live under one State. But the geo-politicians of the Muslim League forget to take note of the demographic fact that except in the North-West Frontier Province, in Western Punjab, in Beluchistan, in the major part of Sind, in the areas of east and central Bengal and the major part of the north Bengal, the Muslims are not in a majority. The Muslim League idea appears to be that by "such territorial adjustments as may be necessary" the whole of these Provinces, as these are constituted today, would be or should be swept into their dream States. It was during the latter part of 1945 that the League leaders could declare that their scheme would embrace the Provinces at present known as North-West Frontier Province, the Punjab, Sind, Beluchistan, Bengal and Assam. They had no reply when they were asked to justify in the light of their own definition of a nation the inclusion of the twelve eastern districts of the Punjab, of the West Bengal districts, of certain central and north Bengal areas into their scheme. The absurdity of their position was thoroughly exposed when they claimed the whole of Assam on the strength of their majority position in the single district of Sylhet.

Others Rationalize it

The situation appears to show that the League politicians are unconcerned with other minority interests, uninterested in any other bond of social cohesion. The Muslim League politician appears to derive his strength from the policy of the British Government, from exploiting the narrowest of human feelings and sentiments in his community. He appears to content himself with making demands with no trouble or thought to be taken how his demands can be made to fit into the life of his neighbour.

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This attitude of his came out prominent all through the Gandhi-Jinnah negotiations, through his callousness to the efforts of Mr. Rajagopalachari, and of the Communist Party of India which have been trying to rationalize his inchoate thoughts and ideas with the help of experience gained in the Soviet Union. "A multi-national State", subject to a central authority reconciling autonomy with the needs and demands of a modern State, faced with the aggregation of huge territories peopled by men and women at different levels of culture, divided by inherited traditions the common source of which has been lost in the mist of ages, has been formed out of territories as wide apart as on the Baltic Sea and the Pacific Ocean. This party has been assiduous in pushing forward its own freedom propaganda on the recognition that the Muslims constituted a separate nation apart from their neighbours of other communities in areas which have been their common homelands. For purposes of expedient politics, with a view to conciliate Muslim League politicians, they appear to be laying less stress on the significance of the centralization of power as they have it in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics through the exercise of which all centrifugal forces are being curbed and controlled.

Other Muslim Parties

The refusal of the Muslim League to accept or support an all-India constitutional arrangement, its insistence to be recognised as the one and single representative of Muslim interests in India, have created difficulties for the Muslim community itself. Organisations of Muslims, the Jamiat-ul-Ulema-i-Hind, the organisation of the Muslim divines of India, the All-India Momin Conference, the Arhars, challenge this claim of the League. The failure of the Simla Conference has been interpreted as due to the unwillingness of the British bureaucracy to recognise any but the Muslim League as the representative of the Muslims of India just as it has been trying to prove that the Indian National Congress does not represent any body but the "caste" Hindus. This is the "United Front" that the bureaucracy, the Muslim League, and the Scheduled Castes Federation appear to have been able to organize as a counterpoise to all that Indian Nationalism has stood for since its first seeds began to germinate a century back.

Scheduled Castes Federation

In the natural dissatisfication of certain sections of the Hindu community, known under the law as Scheduled Castes, the bureaucracy has found another helper. Dr. Bhim Rao Ambedkar has organised sections of these castes into a party that has begun to claim "separate" consideration for their interests. Dr. Ambedkar is at present a member in Lord Wavell's Executive Council. He challenges the theories on which have been reared the norms and forms of popular Hinduism or Hindu society with its division into castes. The Ramsay MacDonald "Communal Award" which was modified by the Poona Pact does not appear now to

satisfy the party represented by Dr. Ambedkar. Under this Pact the Scheduled Castes have been secured a greater number of seats in the Provincial Assemblies than was contemplated in the "Communal Award." The elections to these seats are held under a device combining separate and joint voting. The Scheduled Castes Federation appear to object to this procedure whereby at a certain stage in the election the Scheduled Castes are called upon to seek the votes of their "Caste" Hindu neighbours. They demand separate electorates as the Muslims, the Indian Christians, the Europeans, and the women enjoy under British dispensation.

Other Minorities

This is the technique of disruption that British policy has invented to enable us to develop into modern democracy. And certain sections of the Indian people are enamoured of it under the belief that it is the only way to rid society in India of its crudities and absurdities. So we find today, that in the heart of Muslim Society, the Shiah who are separate from the Sunni Mahomedans by certain doctrinal differences and the Momins and Ansars, the occupational classes in the Muslim community, have been demanding electorates separate from the higher classes of Muslims. This does not exhaust the story of the many differences that characterize India's society. "Twenty-five million souls of Tribal India" now put in claims for separate electorates so that they may be able to represent their own "peoples"; they demand "separate recognition of their rights", to quote the words from a Memorandum submitted to Mr. William Phillips, Personal Representative of the late President Roosevelt at New Delhi.

Background of Separatist Concepts

This is the background history of the many concepts, ambitions and fears that have been stirring the waters of life in India. They contradict one another and appear to leave an anarchy wherein a focal point is almost invisible. As the alien administration has already declared that it is none of its business to reconcile the claims and demands of the many creeds and communities, it has been thrown on the leadership of the many elements of India's life, on their wisdom and statemanship, the responsibility of resolving what has come to be known as the political deadlock in India. The majority of politically-minded people in India

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Indispensable for

ALL MUSCULAR PAIN, SPRAINS
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RHEUMATISM, ETC.

BENGAL CHEMICAL

may feel that this particular difficulty is the creation of British policy and it is its duty to remove it. A British publicist has put the matter in the right perspective when he said that in face of the "communal" intransigence in this country British administrators can do no better than stand in "anxious helplessness". This is, in other words, the version of the point made by us that the British administrators have no responsibility for solving our problem, as alien they are to its soil and alien to its interests; and alien they have remained. Otherwise, they could not have thrown the whole responsibility of solving the communal difficulty on India. Mr. Jinnah and his followers do not appear to realize the significance of the issues that they have thrown into the arena of controversy; they do not appear to be able to apply their mind to any other aspect of the matter except what concerned themselves only; they appear to be satisfied with making their demands, leaving others, the British Government or the other communities in India, to make the appropriate arrangements to meet their wishes.

Sikh Demand

For instance, the Sikhs have claimed that if the Muslim League, as a representative of a section of the Muslim "nation" of India, are to be allowed to have their way, they as the successors of the "nation" from which the British took over the authority of the State in the Punjab are entitled to have a State of their own to be carved out of the centre of the Province, that they are not prepared to have their community's strength bifurcated, one part going to the 17 districts in West Punjab where the Muslim are in an overwhelming majority and the other part going to the 11 districts in east Punjab where the Hindus are a majority. The Muslim League has not a reply to make to this demand except the well-worn "statutory safe-guards" for minorities that embellish the Statute book of every State, ancient or modern. The irony of this plea of theirs is heightened when they themselves angrily refuse to accept such "safe-guards" as a protection to their particular interests. Here is the core of the deallock that has been holding up all progress in India.

Desai-Liaquat Ali Formula

The year that has just closed did not show that the British Government and the Muslim League politicians have been more helpful in the solution of this difficulty. The Simla Conference held in June-July and its failure demonstrated what a blind alley has been created by British policy and its encouragement of narrow conceits and selfish ambitions. The Gandhi-Jinnah talks held in September, 19, 1944, failed because the President of the Muslim League refused to recognize any other unit of population to be found in the north-west and north-east "zones" of India except the Muslims to have a say in deciding their future status. Gandhiji accepted the contrivance of partition to satisfy minority sentiments and subserve minority interests. But Mr. Jinnah would not accept

it subject to this condition that minority sentiments and minority interests in the areas which he claimed for his own were entitled to as much consideration. The Desai-Liaquat Ali Formula that had the blessings of Gandhiji was not a better success. It had accepted the "parity" of the Congress and the League in the number of seats in the Executive Council of the Governor-General; it said that "the claims of the Scheduled Castes and the Sikhs would not be ignored"; if the "interim National Government" could be formed, as contemplated in the Formula, "Congress-League Coalition Ministries" would be formed in the Provinces at present under Sec. 93 Administration. It has been asserted that this "Formula" gave the inspiration to the plan that Lord Wavell took to Britain where it got the sanction of the Churchill Cabinet and formed the basis of the programme of the Simla Conference. But British policy twisted the "parity" recommendation of the Desai-Liaquat Ali Formula into "parity" between Muslims and "Hindus other than members of Scheduled Castes".

Simla Conference Devices

When Gandhiji pointed out to the offensiveness of this distinction and the not veiled attempt to reduce the Indian National Congress to the position of merely representing the Hindus other than members of Scheduled Castes, Lord Wavell could only mumble out that the "term Caste Hindus was not used with offensive intention". His Excellency did not care to explain why he and his advisers in India, and their superiors at London, should have made this choice of reducing 60 per cent of the people of India which the "Hindus other than members of Scheduled Castes" are today to "parity" with less than 25 per cent of its population as the Muslims are today. There were other devices in the Simla Conference scheme. There were no representation on it of the Hindus as such; the Muslim League was accepted as the representative of the Muslims. When Gandhiji refused to accept the position that the Congress represented only the Hindus other than Scheduled Castes, the whole project looked foolish. But for the sake of prestige it had to be up held, and when it reached its deserved doom the Anglo-Indian bureaucracy again stood before the world bankrupt of statesmanship, bankrupt of good faith. But the evil has pursued us. Gandhiji during his talks with Mr. Jinnah had made certain commitments; his endorsement of the Desai-Liaquat Ali Formula made certain others. The Anglo-Indian bureaucracy took advantage of these. The Muslim League leaders showed their hands during the Simla Conference when they refused to accept their parity position with the Caste Hindus, as even this did not retrieve their position as a minority in the *interim* Executive Council. For, the Scheduled Castes with their grievances against Hindu social institutions, and the Sikhs and Indian Christians would sooner and oftener side with the Caste Hindus than with the Pakistani Muslims. And as Lord Wavell and his advisers had not evidently thought of this new deadlock, the Simla Conference

was unceremoniously dissolved, the viceroy trying to console all the participants by generously taking on himself all the blame of this failure.

The September (1945) Plan

In September Lord Wavell went again to have talks with the new British Ministry. In its middle was announced a plan, a new plan, to break the political deadlock in India. Elections would be held in India, and by the middle of 1946 ministries would be set up in the Provinces which might, it was indirectly suggested, be allowed to recommend a list of names out of which the Governor-General would choose members for his Executive Council; a Constitution-making body would be set up from representatives of the Provincial Legislatures to be chosen evidently on the basis of the separate electorate arrangements constructed under the 1935 Act. The British Government and its subordinate branch at New Delhi were not more specific. We are tempted to accept as true the interpretation of their mind as it was attempted in the September (1945) number of the London Quarterly, *The Round Table*.

"It seems therefore that the only way to escape from the immediate deadlock on principle is to hold Provincial elections with the objective, not merely of proving or disproving the Muslim League case, but (equally important) of clearing the way for revived Provincial self-government. Whether, if this were done, either Mr. Jinnah, or his opponents on this issue, would accept the result in the sense of bowing to the Viceroy's reconsidered decision as to which groups, in the light of the election returns, should be represented among the Muslim members of his new Council, is open to doubt. But there seems to be no other way of creating a new tactical situation that will enable the Viceroy to try again, putting forward perhaps fresh devices for "saving face" and easing compromise. For, the nature of the actual problem is tactical; the main issues of the policy have been settled—maximum immediate self-government under the existing constitution; guaranteed representation of minorities in the Executive, equality for Muslims with caste Hindus....."

Sapru Committee Report

Lord Wavell's September announcement represented the uncertain mind of the bureaucracy watching the changes in party alignments in the country. Sober and sane politicians in India, some of them represented in the Non-Party Conference, appear to have moved towards accepting the issues indicated in the extract quoted above. They appointed a Committee to "examine the whole communal and minorities question from a constitutional and political point of view", to raise it above the controversial plane. The Chairman of this Committee was the Rt. Hon'ble Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, and it submitted a report in December, 1945. In the interests of promoting National Unity, the report accepted the "parity" arrangement that formed part of the Simla Conference procedure.

But this was made conditional on the rejection by the Muslim community of the separate electorate device that has given birth to so many dangers threatening the permanent interests of India's millions. The majority of the members of the Committee were emphatically of opinion that

"any division of India into two or more separate independent sovereign States is unjustified and will endanger the peace and orderly progress of the whole country without any compensating advantage to any community, and that the political unity of India should, therefore, be maintained."

The report, a mine of research and information, did not, however, bring about any nearer the different ideologies that divided the communities and parties in India. The Committee showed by its recommendations how eager it was to make compromises with vital principles and practices as a mark of "concession to the Muslim view." Mr. P. R. Das brought out the weakness of this attitude of the Committee in his Note of Dissent concerning its majority view that "residuary powers should be vested in the Units, in the Provinces of India. He referred to the experience of the United States of America, and how "State rights" had been partly responsible for the Civil War that threatened to disrupt it. Mr. Das has the support of all far-seeing Indians when he pleaded that the unitary system of Government that we have at present cannot be thrown over-board without opening the door to the outburst of fissiparous tendencies that lurk in the heart of every society and which in India has been demonstrated by the activities of the Muslim League. The Sapru Report has laid plans for a Federal Constitution for India. This is taking a risk; it is "a break with the past". But

"to vest residuary powers in certain artificial units which were created for administrative purposes, and which have varied from time to time, is to effect such a violent break that it may well lead to chaos."

Exasperation & Frustration

The apprehension that was given expression to does not appear to have had any moderating influence on the policy of the Muslim League; its leaders do not realize that disruptionist tactics they have been following will break up their own dream States. The British bureaucracy have been benevolently looking on this game of power politics. The nationalist forces in India represented in and through the Indian National Congress, the All-India Hindu Mahasabha, the Jaamat-ul-Ulema-i-Hind, the organization of the Muslim divines of India, the All-India Momin Conference and others, stood halted in their activities for the solution of India's political problem. A feeling of exasperation was abroad, of baffled anger that wanted an outlet.

Azad Hind Fauz

From this frustration the trial of members of Azad Hind Fauz, the Indian National Army, at Red Fort in Delhi, rescued the country. To understand the miracle of this recovery it is necessary to recall the sense

of frustration that had sat heavily on the country. The inspiration of the spontaneous outburst of August-October, 1942, had lost its influence. The terrorism of Government through the months following explained part of this demoralization. Gandhiji since his release (May, 1944) continued to condemn these activities as undesired by himself and by the Congress ; as the leadership of the Congress had found no opportunity to launch the non-violent "Quit India" Movement, it could not be held responsible for the "sabotage" movement that had tried to counter Government terrorism. This campaign by Gandhiji and his immediate followers added to the confusion of things and the demoralization of the people. But when members of the Working Committee of the Congress were released from the Ahmednagar Fort in the middle of June 1945, and came to know of the heroic resistance of the people put up during those months of 1942, they, Pundit Jawaharlal Nehru specially, repudiated all the charges that Gandhiji had levelled against the violence of the people ; his colleagues in the Working Committee followed more or less enthusiastically the new lead given by Pundit Nehru. And the 1942 Movement came to be seen in a new light ; the leaders of the resistance movement, Jaiprakash Narayan, Achyut Patwardhan, Mrs. Aruna Asaf Ali, and others less known and the unknown also came to occupy a new place of honour in the hierarchy of the leadership of the National Movement in India. It appeared that a more militant leadership was emerging out of confusion and demoralization that would challenge what the country has been following since 1920 when Gandhiji came into the arena of public life in our country. The failure of the Simla Conference added vigour to the rising temper of politically-minded people in India, reinforced by the disillusionment of those who had supported the Government during the war years. The mind of the people was half awake to their own powers, half ashamed of the sorrow caused to Gandhiji by resort to violence on the part of the people. When it appeared to be thus oscillating between the two feelings there came the trial of three members of the army formations that had been formed in east Asia out of the wrecks of the Indo-British Army, prisoners of war at the hands of the Japanese. And almost in the twinkling of the eye the whole face of the country was transformed. Frustration was shed as a shame, a new hope and a new courage informed the conduct of the people as the story of the formation of this Army of Liberation was understood in its light and shade. As the Advocate-General of India continued to unfold it on the side of the Crown, the real significance of the attempt of Subhas Chandra Bose to win his country's freedom battle with the help of Japanese forces came to be realized with a shock of surprise and admiration. Indian publicists and public men had been a little apologetic with regard to this matter ; they appeared to think that there was something unsportsmanlike in an Indian political leader seeking and securing foreign help against the alien State authority that ruled over them. Gandhiji and Pundit Jawaharlal Nehru, two representative public men of India, had given expression to this feeling. The latter, however,

on his release from the Ahmednagar Fort underwent a change in spirit. He must have put the history of the formation of the Azad Hind Fauz, the Indian National Army of Subhas Chandra Bose, in the wider perspective of India's struggle for political freedom. This quickness of apprehension and appreciation of the implications of the Azad Hind Fauz Movement enabled him to place it side by side with the attempt of 1857 which British historians have taught us to regard as a "Sepoy Mutiny," the revolt of a section of the Indian Army under the British. And the movement led by Subhas Chandra Bose was regarded as bound to it by ties of natural piety. In this process of revaluation the name of another revolutionary patriot, an exile from India to Japan for about 30 years, must have its place of honour. It was Rash Behari Bose who organized the India Independence League when British rule broke down in east Asia and British armies surrendered to the Japanese. It was from him that Subhas Chandra Bose took the reins of the organization. And the name of Captains Mohan Singh and Shah Nawaz deserve record as the real organizers of the army formations that later developed into the Azad Hind Fauz under the inspired leadership of the "Netaji."

Inspiration of its example

The public mind of India which responded with such intrepidity and such abandon to the message of the Azad Hind Fauz might not have rationalized the various ideas that took shape in and through it. But there cannot be any manner of doubt that it found in the Azad Hind Fauz an assurance of the innate strength of India, a promise of the glory that the sons and daughters of India can attain under the leadership of one of themselves. For more than one hundred and fifty years the Indian has been all but cut off from all military traditions; during this period he has been the lot to take orders, to do and die at the bidding of the British commander. The leaders of the Azad Hind Fauz demonstrated that the Indian was good for the thing that the Britisher had monopolized, that organizing an army and ruling a State came as naturally to him. This demonstration enabled him to look the Britisher straight in the face, to regain his self-respect and self-confidence. This realization he found symbolized in the Azad Hind Fauz, in its commanders, in its supreme leader. Therefore did India "go mad" over the story of a great adventure, of a great failure. This year, therefore, will live in our people's memory as the year when we recovered from our ideologies and dreams to welcome men and women of Indian blood who were organizers of an army and builders of a State. Their failure brought them nearer to our people's heart. Their example will not allow them to return to the placid contentment of a politically sheltered existence. This is the message of the year that has passed, the promise of the year that is new born.

WHO'S WHO IN INDIA

Aiyer, Ramaswami, Sir C. P., K.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., C.I.E.—b, 1879; joined Madras Bar in 1903; fellow of Madras Corporation; General Secretary of the Congress, 1917-18; Advocate-General of Madras, 1920; Law Member, Madras Executive Council, 1923-1928; member of the R. T. C.; Executive Councillor of Government of India, 1931 & 1942; Dewan of Travancore.

Ambedkar, Dr. B. R., Ph.D., D.Sc., Bar-at-Law—b. 1893; Prominent leader of the Depressed Classes; Gackwar's Scholar at Columbia University; Professor, Sydenham College of Commerce, 1917; called to Bar, 1923. Founder of the Depressed Classes Institute; nominated member of the Bombay Legislative Council, 1926. Member, R. T. C., 1930-32; and Joint Parliamentary Committee, 1932; member, Viceroy's Executive Council, since 1942.

Afzal Husain, Prof. M.—born 1889; educated at Govt. College, Lahore passed M.Sc. 1913; took Natural Science Tripos in Cambridge University; Entomologist, Pasha Imp. Agricultural Research Institute, 1919; Professor, Agricultural College Lyallpur, 1919; and Principal 1938; Vice-Chancellor, Punjab University, 1938-1944; Member Indian-Famine Commission 1944-45, visited military academics of U.S.A. and Canada as delegate of the Indian War Memorial Committee 1945; President, Ind. Science Congress, 1946.

Allama Mashriqui—the leader of the Khaksars, hails from Amritsar; was once a member of the Indian

Educational service; spent practically the whole of his working career in the Frontier Province after having been Asst. Secretary to the Government of India for a brief period; professor of mathematics at the Islamia College, Peshawar, 1920-31 and later Head Master of Govt. High School, Peshawar; founded the movement in 1931; started his weekly newspaper '*Al-Islah*'; was imprisoned several times; opposed to Pakistan scheme.

Anthony, Frank—Bar-at-Law; M.L.A. (Central); President of the Anglo-Indian & Domiciled European Association; Educated at Robertson College, Jubbulpur and finally in London; was a leading debator of the Nagpur University; Winner, Viceroy's Gold Medal for English; Member of the National Defence Council; Member, Central Assembly.

Ahmed, Dr. Ziauddin, M.A. (Canatb.), Ph.D. (Gottingen)—born 1878, educated at Aligarh, Allahabad, Calcutta, Trinity College, Cambridge; Professor of M. A. O. College, Aligarh in 1907; member, Calcutta University Commission, 1916; Principal, M. A. O. College, 1918; First Pro. Vice-Chancellor of the Moslem University, 1921; member of the Skeen and Shea Committees; member of the U. P. Legislative Council, 1919; member, Central Assembly since 1933; Now Vice-Chancellor, Muslim University, Aligarh.

Aney, M. S., M.A., B.L.—Representative of India in Ceylon since 1943; educated at Morris College, Nagpur; thrice member of

the Legislative Assembly; joined C. T. movement, 1930; suffered imprisonment; member, Congress Working Committee, 1924-25 and 1931-34; was a prominent member of the Congress Nationalist Party and Hindu Mahasabha; started All-India Hindu League; member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1941-43.

Asaf Ali, Bar-at-Law—b. 1888. educated at St. Stephen's College, Delhi, imprisoned several times; Deputy leader, Congress Party, Central Assembly; member Legislative Assembly from Delhi, since 1934; imprisoned several times.

Azad, Moulana Abul Kalam—b. in Mecca in 1888 and passed his childhood in Arabia; educated in theology in famous Al-Azhar University, Coiro; started famous Urdu paper *All Hilal* in Calcutta; interned by British Government on the eve of the world war; met Mahatma Gandhi in 1921 and became one of his staunchest supporters; took a leading part in the Khilafat movement and also joined the Congress under Gandhi's leadership: president, special session of the Congress, Delhi, 1923 and again acted as president in 1930; is a member of the Congress Working Committee; President of the Congress since 1940; imprisoned in 1942 under D. I. Rules and released in 1945.

Ansari, Abdul Quiyum—born 1905 at Dehri-on-Sone, educated at Aligarh Muslim, Calcutta and Allahabad Universities, joined Mahatma Gandhi's Satyagraha movement in 1919, imprisoned in 1922, edited several Urdu papers, joined Momin movement for the uplift of four

and half crores of Momins of India, 1938; elected president of Bihar Provincial Jamiat-ul-Momineen since 1938; presided over 1st Session of the Bihar Provincial Momin Conference, 1940; Executive member of the All-India Azad Muslim Conference, 1940; Congress Minister, Bihar, 1946.

Bhopal, Nawab of—(His Highness Sikander Saulat Iftikar-ul-muluk, Nawab Mohamed Hamidulla Khan Bahadur, G.C.I.E., C.V.O.—Succeeded his mother Her Highness Nawab Sultan Jahan Begum on her voluntary abdication in his favour in May 1926; born in Sept. 1894; one of the most popular rulers of Indian States; Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes 1931-32: a keen sportsman.

Bhaba, Dr. Homi J. F.R.S.—Born October 30, 1909; educated at Bombay and Cambridge; took mathematical Tripos there; was awarded the Rouse-Ball travelling studentship in mathematics in 1932; worked under famous Professor E. Fermi in 1933-34 in Rome and under Prof. H. H. Kramer in Utrecht; was awarded Issac Newton Studentship for three years; lectured at Cambridge on Cosmic radiation, Nuclear Physics; Professor in Charge in the Bangalore Science Institute on Cosmic Rays 1942-45; now Professor Fundamental Research Institute, Bombay elected F.R.S. in 1941.

Badoloi, Gopinath, M.A., B.L. M.L.A.—b. 1889; educated at Cotton College, Gauhati; sometime Head Master of Sonarani High

School, Gauhati, joined Bar 1921; joined non-co-operation movement and was gaoled for a year, 1937; Leader of the Congress Party in Assam Legislative Assembly 1939-40; Premier of the Congress Coalition Ministry; again in jail for individual Satyagraha 1942; Congress Premier Assam from 1946; President of the Gauhati University Trust Board, 1945.

Bajpai, Sir G. S.; C.I.E. ICS.—Born 1891, educated at Allahabad and Merton College, Oxford and topped the list of successful I.C.S. candidates; joined I.C.S. in 1915; Secretary, Govt. of India in Education Dept.; was on deputation to Canada, Australia and New Zealand to investigate the status of Indians there; Secretary to Indian Deputation to South Africa, 1925-26. Private Secretary to Indian Delegation to Geneva, 1929-30. Joint-Secretary to Br. Indian Delegation to R. T. C., Secy. to Education Department 1927-29; member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1935-36; now Agent-General of Govt. of India to U.S.A.

Birla, G. D.—Born in 1894 in Jaipur State, Managing Director of Birla Brothers; owns cotton mills, sugar mills, zamindari, etc. all over India; was member of the Legislative Assembly; President, Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta, 1924; and of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce 1929; member of the Indian Fiscal Commission; and of Royal Commission on Labour, 1930; Delegate to the International Labour Conference at Geneva 1927, member of Second R. T. C.

Bewoor, Sir Gurnath Venkatesh, Kt., C.I.E., I.C.S.—Born at Billa-

pur on Nov. 20, 1888; educated at Deccan College, Poona and Cambridge University; passed I.C.S. in 1911 and served Central Provinces and Berar for 11 years; appointed Postmaster-General of Bihar and Orissa in 1922, was ultimately appointed Director-General, 1931; was India's delegate to the first Air Mail Congress at the Hague, 1927; and also attended Universal Postal Congress at London; Delegate to the World Aviation Conference 1944; now Secretary to Govt. of India, Posts & Air Department.

Brelvi, Syed Abdulla, M.A., LL.B.—born 1891; educated Elphinstone College, Bombay; joined '*Bombay Chronicle*' in 1915 and now its editor since 1924; member, A. I. C. C.; imprisoned in 1930 for C. D. movement; President A. - I. Newspaper Editors' Conference 1943 and 1944-45.

Bagchi, Sachin.—Born 1896; was Chairman. Reception Committee Field-worker's Conference; Ex-General Secretary and now a Vice-President of the Indian Insurance Institute; was Branch manager Lakshmi Insurance Co.; Now manager Adrema, Calcutta.

Bose, Nandalal—born 3rd Dec., 1883; passed Entrance Examination and joined Calcutta Govt. School of Arts where he completed the prescribed course; came under the influence of Dr. Abanindranath Tagore while in Govt. Art School; Served apprenticeship under the master for several years; joined Santiniketan School of Tagore in 1914; is now director of Kala-bhavan, Santiniketan since 1919; travelled Far East, China, Japan

with Poet Tagore in 1924; decorated Congress pandals and exhibitions many times; is the most representative exponent of Indian Art.

Bose, Subhas Chandra—born 23rd January, 1897; matriculated from Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, Secretary, Presidency College Union, 1913-14; B.A. 1919 (1st class, 2nd in Philosophy) from Scottish Churches College; studied at Cambridge, 1919-1921; passed the I.C.S. Examination in 1920, standing 4th in order of merit and 1st in English Composition; B.A. (Cantab.), 1921; resigned I.C.S. while still in London. In charge of North Bengal Flood Relief Work, 1922; Manager, 'Forward,' 1923; Chief Executive Officer, Calcutta Corporation, 1924; was arrested under Regulation III of 1818, 1924; was sentenced to 12 months' rigorous imprisonment, 1930; Mayor of Calcutta in Aug., 1930; President, Indian National Congress, 1938-39; elected President for the second time 1939-40, but resigned; formed Forward Bloc; Disappeared in 1941 and formed Azad Hind Government in East Asia to liberate India and became its president and led Indian National Army in 1943-45.

Bhatnagar Sir Santi Swarupa, O.B., D.Sc. (Lond.), F.R.S.—born 1895, received D.Sc. (Lond.), 1921; University Professor of Chemistry, Hindu University, 1921-24, Prof. Punj. Univ. 1924-40; was appointed Director of the Board and Council of Scientific & Industrial Research in 1940; well known for his investigations on magnetism and its relation to atomic and

molecular structure; President, Indian Science Congress 1945.

Bose, Sarat Chandra—Born 1889; educated at the Ravenshaw College, Cuttack and Presidency College, Calcutta; took M.A. degree in 1908 and B.L. degree in 1911; called to the Bar in England in 1913; was Alderman of Calcutta 1924-32; Member Indian Legislative Assembly 1933; President of the B. P. C. C.; was prisoner for several years under Regulation III of 1818; member, Bengal Legislative Assembly 1937; imprisoned under D.I.A. 1941-1945; now Leader of the Congress Party in Central Assembly.

Chandrasekhar, S. F.R.S.—born 19th Oct. 1910; educated at Presidency College, Madras, Cambridge, Copenhagen etc., elected fellow of the Trinity College, Cambridge; visiting Professor of two American Universities, Harvard and Chicago 1935; returned to India 1926; joined Yarkes Observatory of Chicago University as Research Associate, 1937 and promoted to Assistant professor of Astrophysics; appointed Professor of Astrophysics in 1943; Awarded Sc.D. degree of Cambridge University; 1942; one of the greatest authorities on astrophysics; author of many astronomical books, such as *New method of Stellar Dynamics*, *Principles of Stellar Dynamics*; elected fellow of the Royal Society, 1944.

Chatterjee, Sir Atul, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., G.C.I.E., I.C.S. (Retd.)—Born 24 Nov., 1874; stood first in I.C.S. Exam; was High Commissioner for India 1925-31 entered the I.C.S. in 1896; represented

Govt. of India on many important occasions; notably at the International Labour Conference at Washington and London Naval Conference; was the Leader of the Indian Delegation at Ottawa 1932; is now an Adviser of the Secretary of State for India.

Chattopadhyaya, Kamaladevi—

Born 1903, Mangalore; educated in Madras and Cambridge; married Harindranath Chattopadhyaya the poet and brother of Mrs. Sarojini Naidu; a gifted speaker; entered Congress 1922; visited England and Continent; prisoned more than once owing to Congress activities. First Woman to contest Legislative Council election in India 1926; member, Congress Socialist Party.

Chattopadhyaya, Harindranath

—born 1898, brother of poetess Sarojini Naidu; educated at Hyderabad, Deccan; well-known as a poet, playwright; has travelled extensively throughout Europe and America, has acquired specialised knowledge on theatre and stagecraft; is a disciple of Sri Aurobindo; author of following books—*Feast of Youth*, *Perfume of Earth*, *Gray Clouds*, etc.

Chetty, Shammukham, Sir R. K.

K. C. I. E.—Born Oct. 17, 1892. Educated at Madras Christian College; member of the Madras Legislative Council in 1920; member, Legislative Assembly, 1923; visited Australia as a delegate to the Empire Parliamentary Association; adviser to Indian Employers' delegate at the I. L. O., delegate to Ottawa Economic Conference 1932; member, Central Government Retrenchment Committee 1930; Deputy President, Central Assembly 1931;

President of the Legislative Assembly; Dewan of Cochin 1935; Head of the Govt. of India Supply Mission in America 1941-42; Govt. of India's delegate to Bretton Woods Monetary Conference 1944; President Indian Tariff Board 1945.

Chopra, Lt.-Col. Sir R. N.,

C.I.E., K.H.P., M.A., M.D. (Cantab.), M.R.C.P. (Lond.)—Born 1882; joined I.M.S. in 1908 and appointed Director of the School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta, 1935-41; has attained international fame by his researches in tropical diseases; was president of the Indian Drugs Enquiry Committee; is responsible for the starting of Bio-Assay Laboratory in Calcutta for laying down standards in medicines; was the Honorary Physician to the King, 1935-39; is now Director of Drug Research Laboratory, Kashmir.

Chandravarkar, Sir V. N., B.A.

(Cantab.); Bar-at-Law—Born 1887, son of Sir N. G. Chandravarkar; educated at Bombay and Cambridge, member Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1926-39; Mayor of Bombay, 1932-33; Chairman, Bombay Millowner's Association, 1936 and 1940, Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University, 1933-39; President Liberal Federation, 1940; member, Council of Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

Dadabhoy, Hon. Sir M. B., Kt.

—Born 1865; educated at St. Xavier's College Poona, called to the bar (Middle Temple), 1887; Advocate of Bombay High Court 1887; became member of the Bombay Corporation, 1889-90; Government Advocate, Nagpur 1891, member of the Fiscal Com-

mission, 1925-26; Governor of Imperial Bank of India; member; Viceroy's Legislative Council 1908-12, 1914-17; elected member of the Council of State, 1921; member, R. T. C. 1931; Director of many Public Companies; now President of the Council of State.

Desai, Bhulabhai J., M.A., LL.B.—Born 13th October, 1877; educated at Bombay and graduated from Elphinstone College, joined Bombay Bar as an Advocate, was for some time Advocate-General of Bombay, 1926; joined Civil Disobedience Movement in 1932; suffered imprisonment and fine of Rs. 10,000; Member, Legislative Assembly from Gujrat; Leader of the Opposition, Central Assembly 1937-45; was President of the Congress Parliamentary Board; imprisoned in 1940 under Defence of India Act; was the chief defence advocate in the 1st I.N.A. trial 1945.

Dalal, Sir Ardeshir Rustomji, Kt., I.C.S. (retd.)—Director and partner, Messrs. Tata Sons, Ltd., Director of many Tata Companies; educated at Bombay and Cambridge, became Ag. Secretary, Govt. of India, Education, Health and Land Departments, Municipal Commissioner, Bombay; member of the Viceroy's Executive Council (Planning & Development 1944-45).

Datta, Narendra Chandra, B.L.; M.L.C. (Bengal)—born at Tippera; started life as lawyer; left bar and started Comilla Banking Corporation Ltd. 1914; founder and Promoter and Director of many Joint Stock Companies; now Managing Director, Comilla Banking Corporation.

Das Gupta, Satish Chandra—

Born 1882, began his career as Superintendent of Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works, Calcutta; left the service and joined non-co-operation movement; started *Khadi Pratisthan* for the development of cottage industries and khadi work and achieved signal success; has devoted entirely to the constructive side of Congress programme; imprisoned several times.

Dalmia, Seth Ramkrishna—B.

1893; is one of the biggest industrialists of India; has started in Dalmianagar (Dehri-on-Sone) many factories for producing cement, paper, sugar, chemicals, etc.; is a great philanthropist.

Deshmukh, Sir C. D.—Born Jan.

14, 1896; educated Bombay, Cambridge and entered I.C.S. in 1919; one of the secretaries of R. T. Conference 1931; Jt. Secretary, Govt. of India Education, Health & Lands Dept.; Secy., Reserve Bank of India 1939-41, Dy. Governor, Reserve Bank of India 1941-43; now Governor of the Reserve Bank of India.

Dutt, Rajani Palme—Born 1896,

educated Balliol College, Oxford; Secy. International Research Dept. 1919-22; Executive member of the same 1921-26; Editor, "*Worker's Weekly*" 1921-26; Editor, "*Labour Monthly*" since 1921; one of the greatest living authorities on Marxism; Author of "*Labour International Handbook*," "*Modern India*," "*World Politics*," 1918-36; Vice-Chairman, Communist Party, England.

Das, Taraknath—one of the distinguished Ind. scholars in U.S.A.

went to Japan; went to America; acted as interpreter in the Immigration Office in Seattle, Washington and at Pacific Coast Ports; became American citizen 1914; took university degree at Georgetown University at Washington; was on the faculties of the New England Institute of International Relations, Wellesley College, Cornell University, etc.; is an well-known authority on Labour problems; author of several books.

Dutt, Raghunath —born 1886, joined his father's firm, Bholanath Dutt & Sons after finishing school education, 1904; has been practically the life and soul of the firm since 1908; became a leading paper-dealer and established business connections throughout the world; has also established allied business, Standard Stationary Mfg. Ltd., under the expert supervision of his European-trained son; Director of many industrial concerns; Director of Hooghly Printing Ink Co., Ltd.; President, Calcutta Paper Traders Association; member of the Advisory Board, B. N. Rly.

Fazlul Huq, A. K. —Born Oct., 1873 at Chakhar, Barisal. Educated in Barisal and Calcutta; graduated from the Presidency College 1891; vakil, Calcutta High Court 1900; entered Government Service but resigned in 1912; re-joined High Court; member Bengal Legislative Council; joined the Congress 1914; President, All-India Moslem League 1918; General Secretary, Indian National Congress, 1918; Minister of Bengal, 1924; delegate to the first and second R. T. C. Member Central

Assembly, 1934; Mayor of Calcutta, 1935-36. Leader of the Proja Party in Bengal since 1927; was the Chief Minister of Bengal 1937-1941.

Ghose, Aurobindo —Born in Calcutta, 1872; went to England at the age of 7; educated at St. Paul's School and King's College, Cambridge where he took a first class in classical Tripos; Passed I.C.S. Examination but was disqualified for horse riding. 1890; After service in Baroda, he returned to Bengal and joined in the political movement; was the first editor of *Bande Mataram*; was arrested in the Alipore Bomb Case but was acquitted; has settled at Pondicherry in 1910; has abandoned politics altogether and has remained to this day engaged in endless quest for a knowledge of God; has established an 'Ashram' at Pondicherry.

Ghose, Sir J. C., D.Sc.—Born 1894; had a distinguished career at Calcutta and London Universities; joined Calcutta University as a lecturer in chemistry in 1916; afterwards Head of the Chemistry Department of Dacca University from 1921; has made notable contributions to science in the field of electro-chemistry, theory of salt solutions and mechanism of chemical reactions specially under the influence of radiation; is a member of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research; is also a member of the governing body of the Indian Research Fund Association since 1932; President, Indian Science Congress, 1939; now Director, Indian Science Institute, Bangalore.

Gour, Sir Hari Singh, D.Litt., LL.D., Bar-at-Law—Born 1872; educated Hislop College, Nagpur and at Cambridge; President, Nagpur Municipal Committee, 1918-22, elected Dy. President of Assembly; delegate to Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reforms 1933; first Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University; author of several standard law books; was Vice-Chancellor, Nagpur University.

Gandhi, Mohandas Karamchand—Born 2nd Oct. 1869; educated at Rajkot, Bhavnagar and London; practised law in South Africa; was in charge of an Indian Ambulance Corps during Boer War and Zulu War in South Africa; organised Ambulance Corps in 1914-18; started Satyagraha movement in 1915-19; non-co-operation movement in 1920. Sentenced to six years' simple imprisonment on March 18, 1922, for sedition; President of the Congress in 1924; started C. D. movement in 1930 and was interned but released in Jan. 1931; was responsible for Gandhi-Irwin Pact, 1931, attended the 2nd R. T. C. as sole Congress delegate; started fast for undoing the Prime Minister's communal award; retired from politics in 1935 to devote for village uplift; again fasted in 1939 for the reform of

Rajkot State; started individual Satyagraha in Oct. 1940; imprisoned in 1942; undertook 21 days' fast for government's refusal to him to repudiate charge of Congress disturbances in 1942.

Ghuznavi, Sir Abdul Halim Abul Hussein Khan, Kt. (1935), Landlord and Merchant—Born Nov. 11, 1876. Elected Member, Indian Legislative Assembly, 1926-1945; Delegate to all the three Round Table Conferences in London; Member, Consultative Committee in India 1932; Delegate to the Joint Parliamentary Committee, 1933; Member, Advisory Board, Indian Delegation to the World Economic Conference, 1933; Member Court, University of Aligarh; Fellow, Calcutta University; President, Central National Muhammadan Association, Calcutta; Member, Royal Asiatic Society; Chairman, Trustees of Indian Museum, Calcutta; Member, Governing Body, I.M.M.T.S. "Dufferin"; President, Muslim Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta 1939-40; Sheriff of Calcutta, 1934-36; Knighthood, 1935; Member, Industrial Research Utilization Committee; Member, Governing Body, Council of Scientific & Industrial Research; President, Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta (1945-46); Director of Lionel Edwards Ltd., J. B. Norton

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& Sons Ltd., United Press of India Ltd., India Steamship Co., Ltd., and of many collieries and Sugar Mills; Proprietor, Messrs. A. H. Ghuznavi & Co., 19, Strand Rd., Calcutta; Chairman, H. J. Bortoon & Co., Royal Calcutta Turf Clubs; New Delhi Aero Club and Gymkhana Club. Residence: 18, Canal St., Intally, P.O. Calcutta; Country House, Santikunja, Tangail (Dist. Mymensingh), Bengal.

Habibulla, Sir Muhammad, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., LL.D.—Born 1869; joined bar in 1888; member, Legislative Council, 1909-12; Commissioner, Madras, Corporation, 1920; temporary member, Madras Executive Council, 1919; twice member of the Executive Council of Madras; became member for Education in Viceroy's Executive Council, 1925-30; led the Indian Delegation to South Africa in 1926; leader of the Indian Delegation to the League of Nations, 1929; Dewan of Travancore, 1934.

Hidayatulla Sir Ghulam Husain—Born January, 1879, educated at D. J. Sindh College and Govt. Law School, became a lawyer; member, Bombay Legislative Council in 1912-1920; was a Minister of Bombay Government from 1921 to 1928, also member of the Bombay Executive Council, 1928-34; was a member of the R. T. C., was a nominated member of the Council of State; member of the Legislative Assembly; appointed President of the Sind Advisory Council; the first Chief Minister of Sind; was again a minister under Allah Bux ministry, is now the Chief Minister of Sind.

Haque, Sir Muhammad Azizul, C.I.E.—b. 1892; Member of the

Viceroy's Executive Council (Industries and Supplies); was Speaker of the Bengal Assembly, 1937-42 and Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University 1938; was a member of the Indian Franchise Committee; a member of the Bengal Legislature and Fellow of the Calcutta University; Minister for Education, 1934-1937; High Commissioner of India in London, 1942-43.

Hydari, Sir Akbar—Educated at St. Xavier's College, Bombay and at Balliol College Oxford; entered I.C.S. 1919; Agent of the Government of India in Ceylon 1927; Secretary to the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research 1929; attended 2nd R. T. C. & 3rd R. T. C. as Adviser; Joint-Secretary to the Education, Health & Lands Department of the Government of India; Secretary to the Labour Department 1938; Secretary to Industries and Civil Supplies Dept. of Government of India 1945; Member, Viceroy's Executive Council with Information and Broadcasting Portfolio 1945.

Iyer, Sivaswami, Sir P., K.C.S.I. C.S.I., C.I.E.—Born 7th Feb., 1864 in Tanjore District, Vice-Chancellor, Madras University, 1916-18; Hindu University, 1918-19; elected member of the Legislative Assembly 1929-23; nominated member, 1924-26; Advocate-General of Madras 1908-12; member, Executive Council, Madras, 1912-17.

Jay Prakash Narain—born in the Saran district of Bihar, left for America in 1922, and stayed there for nearly eight years and studied at five different Universities; returned to India in 1931, and was placed in charge of Labour Research Department of

the Congress and acted for several months at General Secretary of the Congress; was imprisoned for C. D. movement; formed Congress Socialist Party; was imprisoned in 1939 under D. I. Act and was released in 1946.

Jayakar, Mukund Ramrao, Dr. Bar-at-Law, LL.D., D.C.L., P.C.—Educated at Bombay University; entered Bombay Legislative Council, 1923, and became leader of the Swaraj Party in Assembly; Broke away from the Congress; played a prominent part to bring peace between the Congress and the Government in June 1930 but failed. Member, Legislative Assembly 1926-30; a member of the R. T. C. and Joint Select Committee, 1933; appointed Judge of the Federal Court of India, 1937; received LL.D. from Oxford, 1938; was member of Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Jinnah, Mahomed Ali, Bar-at-Law—Born Dec. 25, 1876 at Karachi; called to the bar 1896; married daughter of Sir Dinshaw Petit; a member of the Central Legislative Assembly almost continuously since 1910; Secretary to Dadabhai Naoroji in 1906; joined Indian National Congress and became its prominent member; resigned from his seat in the Legislative Assembly as a protest against the passing of the Rowlatt Act; left Congress; Permanent President of the All-India Moslem League; a member of the Round Table Conferences.

Jha, Amarnath, Dr.—born 25th Feb. 1897; University Professor, 1930; Vice-Chairman, Allahabad Municipality; President, All-India

Educational Conference; is a Fellow of the Royal Society of Literature; a Vice-President of the Poetry Society; Fellow of the Royal Society of Arts; the Vice-Chancellor of the Allahabad University.

Joshi N. M.—born 1879; educated at Poona, B.A.; was member of the Legislative Assembly; a prominent member of the Servants of India Society, was a member of Bombay Corporation, 1919-23. Represented Labour in the Legislative Assembly from 1921-1945; was a member of the Royal Commission on Labour, 1929-31; member of the R.T.C. 1930-32; represented India in the International Labour Conference at Geneva on many occasions; general secretary, Trade Union Congress, 1940.

Khare, Narayan Bhasker, Dr.—Born 1884, educated at Government College, Nagpur and graduated in 1902; graduated in Medicine in 1907, was appointed in C. P. Provincial Medical Service, got M.D. degree, gave up Government service and joined politics; member Central Assembly, 1935; President of the Nagpur Provincial Congress Committee from 1935 to 1937; member of A. I. C. C.; Congress Premier of C. P. until a break with the Congress High Command; now member of the Viceroy's Executive Council (*Commonwealth Department*).

Khan, Aga, H. H. The Rt. Hon. G.C.I.E., G.C.S.I., G.C.V.O., LL.D. (Cantab.); P.C. (1934)—Born in 1877, personal distinction of "His Highness" conferred in 1886; got K.C.I.E. in 1889, G.C.I.E. in 1902 and G.C.S.I. in 1911; was a nominated member of the Imperial

Legislative Council ; is the spiritual head of Ismailiah sect of Mussalmans ; is a great sportsman and owner of famous race-horses ; have won Derby, in 1930, 1935, and 1936, Cesarewitch, Oaks and St. Leger ; President of the Assembly of League of Nations, 1937.

Khan Sahib, Dr.—Congress Premier of the North-West Frontier Province ; is the elder brother of Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan, "*the Frontier Gandhi*"; Finished his medical education in England ; was attached to an army as a commissioned officer ; joined Congress and "Red Shirts" movement ; was interned with his brother during non-co-operation movement ; was a member of the Legislative Assembly for several years.

Khan, Zafrulla, Sir Muhammad, C.S.I., Bar-at-Law—Born 6th Feb., 1893 ; educated at Lahore and King's College, London ; member of the Punjab Legislative Council, 1926-35 ; Delegate, R. T. C. ; President of the All-India Muslim League, 1931 ; member of the Viceroy's Executive Council, 1932 ; attended the Conference of Dominion Ministers in 1939 and represented India at the League of Nations Assembly in 1939 ; visited Chungking as Govt. of India delegate ; judge of the Federal Court.

Karve, Prof. D. K.—born on April 18, 1858 ; founder of Hindu Widow's Home and Indian Women's University at Poona ; became professor of Ferguson College at Poona ; founded Widow Marriage Association ; ultimately started Hindu Widows' Home in 1896 ; started Indian Women's University which was inaugurated in 1916.

Kidwai, Rafi Ahmed—born 1894 ; educated at M. A. O. College ; a zemindar of Barabanki district ; actively participated in all the Congress movements since 1921 ; was associated with Pandit Motilal Nehru ; was a member of the Central Assembly and its Whip ; was ex-President of U. P. Provincial Congress Committee ; was a President of the U. P. Congress Parliamentary Board ; Congress Minister of the Province 1937-39 and again in 1946.

Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan.—Commonly known as "*Frontier Gandhi*"; born in 1891 at the village Uttamanazi in Peshawar ; read up to Entrance Standard ; in 1912 entered into a career of public activity ; started a national school in his village but was suppressed in 1915 ; took a prominent part in Rowlat Act agitation ; also joined in the Non-co-operation movement and sentenced in 1922 to three years' R.I. ; came in personal contact with Mahatma Gandhi in 1928 ; and started Red Shirt volunteer corps known as '*Khudai Khidmatgar*', 1929 ; was externed from Punjab and N. W. F. P. ; suffered imprisonment for several times for Congress cause.

Khan, Sir Shafaat Ahmed—Born in 1893, educated Government High School, Moradabad ; Trinity College, Dublin and University of London ; Professor of Modern History, Allahabad University ; was member of U. P. Legislative Council ; member R. T. C., 1930-32 ; Chairman, All-India Moslem Conference, 1933-34 ; was a member of the Federal Public Service Commission ; among his publications are

Indian Federation and '*Indian Finance*'; was High Commissioner for India in South Africa.

Katju, Dr. Kailas Nath, M.A., LL.D.—Born 1887, Advocate, High Court, Allahabad; obtained LL.D. of Allahabad University in 1919; elected Chairman of the Allahabad Municipal Board (1935-37); Minister under Congress Government 1937-39; member, All-India Congress Committee; was imprisoned in 1940 for Civil Disobedience Movement; author of several law books, again Congress Minister, 1945.

Krishnaswami Iyer, Sir Ahladi—Born 1883, educated at Christian College, Madras; became Advocate, 1907; member of the Madras University Syndicate; made Dewan Bahadur, 1930; appointed Advocate-General of Madras, 1929; Knighted, 1931; nominated member of the Legislative Council, Madras.

Krishna Menon, V. K.—a noted author, journalist and publicist who devotes his time for propagating Congress ideals in England; has written numerous tracts and books dealing with India, is associated with many clubs and associations for advancing the cause of Indian freedom in England.

Khan, Nawabzada Liaquat Ali—M.A. (Oxon.)—b. 1895; educated at Aligarh, Oxford; member, U. P. Legislative Council, 1926, 1930;

member, Central Assembly; Deputy Leader, Muslim League Party. Central Assembly; Secretary, All India Muslim League since 1936.

Kunzru, Pandit Hridaynath—LL.D.—b. 1887, educated at Allahabad University and London; joined Servants of India Society 1909; member, U. P. Legislative Council, 1921-23; member, Central Assembly, 1927-30; President, National Liberal Federation 1934; now member of the Council of State and President of the Servants of India Society.

Kher, B. G.—born at Rajgiri August 24, 1888; educated at Poona and Wilson College, Bombay; passed law examination in 1908; toured Europe and America in 1912; became personal secretary of Mr. Justice Beaman, became partner in a solicitor's firm in 1918 joined politics in 1922; conducted salt Satyagraha in 1932 and convicted under Ordinance in 1937. Prime Minister of the Congress Government, Bombay 1937-39 and again in 1946.

Krishnan, Dr. K. S.—A pupil of Sir C. V. Raman, collaborated with him from 1923 to 1928; took up Readership in physics at Dacca Univ. in 1928; came to Calcutta in 1933; was invited at the International Conference of Photo luminescence at Warsaw in 1936; in 1937

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Khan, Zafrulla, Sir Muhammad, C.S.I., Bar-at-Law—Born 6th Feb., 1893 ; educated at Lahore and King's College, London ; member of the Punjab Legislative Council, 1926-35 ; Delegate, R. T. C. ; President of the All-India Muslim League, 1931 ; member of the Viceroy's Executive Council, 1932 ; attended the Conference of Dominion Ministers in 1939 and represented India at the League of Nations Assembly in 1939 ; visited Chungking as Govt. of India delegate ; judge of the Federal Court.

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member, Central Assembly; Deputy Leader, Muslim League Party. Central Assembly; Secretary, All India Muslim League since 1936.

Kunzru, Pandit Hridaynath—LL.D.—b. 1887, educated at Allahabad University and London; joined Servants of India Society 1909; member, U. P. Legislative Council, 1921-23; member, Central Assembly, 1927-30; President, National Liberal Federation 1934; now member of the Council of State and President of the Servants of India Society.

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Krishnan, Dr. K. S.—A pupil of Sir C. V. Raman, collaborated with him from 1923 to 1928; took up Readership in physics at Dacca Univ. in 1928; came to Calcutta in 1933; was invited at the International Conference of Photo luminescence at Warsaw in 1936; in 1937

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made an extensive tour in Europe ; presided over Indian Science Congress at Madras in 1940 ; was research Professor of Physics at Indian Science Association ; elected Fellow of the Royal Society in 1940. Now head of the Physics Dept. in Allahabad University.

Kumaraswami, Ananda K.—D.Sc. (Lond.) ; born 1877 ; educated at University College, London, Director, Mineralogical Survey of Ceylon 1903-6 ; President, Ceylon Social Reform Society ; assisted to form India Society, London ; Vice-President, India Society of London ; Author of *Medieval Sinhalese Art, Myths of Hindus & Buddhists* (with Sister Nivedita), *Mirror of Jesture, Dqnce of Siva, Rajput Painting* ; one of the greatest connoisseurs and critics of Indian and Indonesian Art ; now Fellow for the researches in Indian, Persian and Muslim Art in the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, America.

Malaviya, Pandit Madan Mohan—Born 25th Dec., 1861 ; educated at Muir Central College, Allahabad, member, Prov. Legislative Council 1902-12 ; was several times member of the Imperial Legislative Council and Assembly (1924-30) ; Founder and late Vice-Chancellor of the Benares Hindu University, President of the Hindu Mahasabha ; President of the Hindu National Congress 1909 and 1918 ; delegate to the Second Round Table Conference ; took a prominent part in the Poona Pact and Unity Conferences ; twice went to jail during C. D. movement.

Manohar Lal, Sir—born 1879 ; educated at Punjab University, Cobden Scholar, Cambridge ; Minto

Professor of Economics, Calcutta University 1902-12 ; member, Legislative Council, Punjab, 1927-30 ; Minister of the Punjab Government in charge of Finance 1937-1945.

Mitter, Sir B. L., K.C.S.I. was Advocate-General of Bengal, also Law, Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council ; after retirement became a member of the Bengal Executive Council ; was Advocate-General of India ; now Dewan of Baroda.

Masani, M. R. B.A. LLB—Born 1905 ; educated at Elphinstone College Bombay and London School of Economics, London ; Advocate of Bombay High Court ; a founder of the Congress Socialist Party ; Mayor of Bombay, 1943-44 ; Secretary, Public Relations Department of Tata Sons Ltd. ; elected Congress member of the Central Assembly, 1946 ; Author of many books such as *India's Constitution at Work ; Our India ; Your Food ; Picture of a Plan.*

Mahmud, Dr. Syed—born 1889 ; Barrister-at-Law and Ph.D. ; joined Congress in 1921 ; was convicted for sedition ; was Secretary to the Central Khilafat Committee ; was General Secretary of the Congress 1923 and 1930-36 ; served another term of imprisonment in 1930 ; Education Minister under Congress Government. 1937-39 and also from 1946.

Mehta, Jamnadas, M.A. LLB ; Bar-at-Law—Born 3rd Aug., 1884 ; member, Bombay Municipal Corporation ; member Legislative Assembly 1923-29 ; President, All-India Railwaymen's Federation ; President, Bombay Congress Committee 1920-30 ; member, All-India Congress

Committee, 1920-30; President, National Trade Union Federation, 1933-35; Workers' Delegate I.L.C. 1934; Mayor of Bombay, 1938; Finance Minister in the Minority Ministry 1937; now Govt. of India Representative to Burma Govt.

Mahalanobis, P. C. M.A. F.R.S.—Born 1893; educated at Brahm Boys School & Presidency College, Calcutta; received Tripos at Cambridge University; Senior Research Scholar at King's College, Cambridge; joined Presidency College, Calcutta 1917; M.A. of Cambridge University 1918; Hony. Secretary Biswavarati 1921-31; Sectional President of the Indian Science Congress, 1925, 1942; Secretary Indian Statistical Society from 1931; Editor of *Sankhya* from 1931; Statistical Adviser to many Government Committees, and Commissions; Calcutta University Professor of Statistics, 1941; General Secy., Indian Science Congress 1945; elected F.R.S. 1945.

Mavlankar, The Hon. Mr. G. V. B.A., LL.B.—President of the Indian Central Assembly, 1946; born 1888; started law practice in 1913; took part in Kaira no-rent campaign 1917; entered Ahmedabad Municipality 1919; Secretary Gujarat Prov. Congress Committee, 1921-23; General Secretary 36th Indian National Congress, Ahmedabad, 1921; visited England & Continent 1928; President, Ahmedabad Municipality, 1930-33 and 1935-36; imprisoned 1930 and 1933-34; imprisoned for individual Civil Disobedience 1940; imprisoned August 1942 and released on March 1944.

Meherally, Yusuf, B.A. LLB—Born on Sept. 23, 1906; educated

at Elphinstone College & Govt. Law College, Bombay; founded Bombay Youth League in 1928; organised the boycott of the Simon Commission in Bombay 1928; was delegate to World Youth Peace Conference in Holland in 1928; edited *Vanguard* 1929-33; was sent to prison five times; was chairman of the All-India Students Conference 1941; was Mayor of Bombay, 1942-43.

Mirza, Mohamed Ismail Sir, K.C.I.E., Kt., C.I.E., O.B.E.—Born 23rd October, 1885; was Dewan of Mysore for several years; joined service as Supdt. of Police, 1905. Private Secy. to the Maharaja, 1922; delegate to R. T. C.; Delegate to Joint Select Committee, 1933; led the Indian Delegation to the Inter-Governmental Conference at Java on Rural Hygiene; now Prime Minister of Jaipur State.

Mody, Sir H. P., M.A., LLB.—Born 1881; educated at Bombay; member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1913-14; Chairman of the Mill-owners' Association, Bombay, 1929-34; President of the Indian Merchants' Chamber 1928; President of the Employers' Federation of India, 1933-41; attended Round Table Conference; member of the Legislative Assembly; was member of the Viceroy's Executive Council; Director of Tata Sons Ltd., delegate, International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1937; Chairman Associated Cement Companies.

Mudaliar, Sir A. Ramaswami—Born 1887; Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council; Member of the Madras Legislature, 1920-26; Mayor, Madras Corporation, 1928-30; member, Council of State

1930; delegate to the Round Table Conference; led the Indian Delegation to the British Commonwealth Relations Conference at Toronto; also served in the Economic Enquiry Committee of the League of Nations; was member of the British War Cabinet and Pacific War Council; elected President of Social & Economic Council of U.N.O.

Moonjee, Dr. B. S.—Leader of the Hindu Mahasabha; was a prominent member of the Responsivist Party; took part in the civil disobedience movement and was sentenced; was President of the Hindu Mahasabha; has taken a prominent part in organising military training of Hindus and opened Bhonsla Military School, Nasik.

Munshi, K. M. B.A., LLB.—B. Dec. 29, 1887, educated at Baroda and Bombay. enrolled as Advocate High Court 1913; was a joint editor of *Young India* in 1915; Secretary, Bombay Home Rule League, 1919-20; fellow of the Bom. University; member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1927-30; member, Baroda University Commission, 1927; member, All-India Congress Committee 1930-37; was a Congress Minister, Bombay 1937-39; a well-known Gujarati novelist; left Congress but joined again in 1945.

Mukherjee Shyama Prasad, M.A., B.L., D.Litt., Bar-at-Law—Born July 1901; son of late Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee; Educated at Mitra Institution, and Presidency College; Fellow of the Calcutta University 1924; member of the Bengal Legislative Council 1929;

tendered resignation in response to Congress boycott of Councils, but was re-elected again in 1930. Vice-Chancellor, Cal. University 1934-38; working president of the Hindu Mahasabha; was Minister of Bengal, 1941-42; President of the Hindu Mahasabha; President Royal Asiatic Society 1943-45

Mookherjee, Sir B. N.—born February 14, 1899; is a partner of the well-known firms of Martin & Co. and Burn & Co.; youngest son of Sir Rajendranath Mookerjee; joined the firm of Martin & Co. in 1924; became a partner of Burn & Co. in 1931 and of Martin & Co. in 1934; was Sheriff of Calcutta, 1940-41; member of the National Defence Council; member of the local board of directors of the Imperial Bank of India and an adviser to the Munitions Supply Board.

Naidu, Mrs. Sarojini—Born Hyderabad, Deccan, Feb. 1879; educated in London and Cambridge; first Indian Woman President of the Congress; imprisoned several times for country's cause; a member of the Government of India South African Delegation, 1932, decorated with Kaiser-i-Hind gold medal; a gifted poetess; Author of several books, such as *'Bird of Time'*, *'Golden Threshold'*; a delegate to the Round Table Conference (1931); Fellow of the Royal Society of Literature (1914).

Nazimuddin, Khwaja, Sir, K.C.S.I.—Born 1894, educated M. A. O. College, Aligarh and Cambridge; Chairman, Dacca Municipality, 1922-29; Minister of Education, 1929-34; Home Minister, Ben-

gal Government, 1937; Chief Minister, Bengal Govt., 1943-45.

Nehru, Pandit Jawaharlal—

Born 1889; educated at Harrow School and Trinity College, Cambridge; Bar-at-Law; was General Secretary of the Congress; President of the Congress 1929-30, 1935 and 1936. Member of the A. I. C. C. since 1928; made extensive tours throughout Europe and Soviet Russia; several times imprisoned for Congress and non-co-operation movements; is a prolific writer; Socialist, rationalist and student of history; wrote his autobiography in 1936; visited China in 1939 as Congress representative; Sentenced to 4 years' imprisonment in 1940, but released in 1941, again imprisoned for 9th time in 1942; visited Malaya 1946.

Noon, Malik Sir Feroz Khan,

Kt. K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.—Born, 1893; educated at Aitchison Chiefs College, Lahore and Wadham College, Oxford and was called to the Bar; was appointed Minister, Punjab Government 1927-36; was High Commissioner for India 1936-41; Labour Member, Viceroy's Executive Council 1941-42; Defence Member Viceroy's Executive Council 1942-45; Govt. of India delegate, San Francisco Conference 1945.

Nariman, K. F.—born 1885 in Thana (Bombay); interpreter in a police court; started practice as lawyer; member of the Corporation of Bombay; member of the Bombay Council, 1924-25; became the leader of the Bombay Swarajya Party; figured prominently in Harvey-Nariman Case and was

honourably acquitted; Started Youth-League in Bombay in 1924-25, was elected the President of the B. P. C. C. in 1929. In 1930 joined C. D. movement; was arrested and prosecuted several times; was member of the Working Committee; was the Chairman of 48th I. N. Congress (Bombay) 1943; Mayor of Bombay, 1935.

Paramananda, Bhai—educated at

the D. A. V. College and took M.A. degree and joined the College as professor, became missionary of Arya Samaj and visited South Africa in 1905; on return was arrested as political suspect in 1909 in 1910 visited British Colonies and South America, but was arrested in 1914 on his return being suspected as member of the Gadar Party of America and sentenced to death, but was transported for life; and released in 1920; joined Congress and Non-co-operation movement, became Principal of National College, Lahore; left Congress and joined Hindu Mahasabha and started Sangathan movement; member Central Assembly, 1931 and 1935; was President of the Hindu Mahasabha in 1934.

Pandit, Mrs. Vijayalakshmi—B.

1900; Sister of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru; was the first woman Minister in India; took active part in the Congress movements of 1930 and 1932; President All-India Women's Conference, 1941; was sent to jail in 1930 & 1932; took extensive tour to America in 1944-45; again Congress Minister of U. P. 1946.

Pant, Pt. Govind Vallabh—

Born Sept. 1886; Leader, Congress Party, U. P. Assembly; was

leader of the Swaraj Party U. P. Council for six years; took leading part in the non-co-operation movement, 1921; took active part in Satyagraha movement, 1930; elected to the Central Legislative Assembly in 1935; was Congress Prime Minister of U. P. 1937-39; again Premier in 1945.

Panikkar, Major Sardar, K.M.—Born 1895, educated at the Christian College, Madras and Christ Church, Oxford; appointed Professor at the Muslim University. Became the first editor '*Swarajaya*', Madras, 1922; and then '*Hindustan Times*', Delhi; joined Kashmir State; became Secretary to Chancellor of Indian Princes Chamber; attended all three R. T. Conferences; was Foreign Minister in Patiala (1933-39); is now Foreign Minister and Vice-President of Council, Bikaner; Author of following book—*Indian Princes in Council* (1936).

Patel, Vallabhbhai, Sardar—Born October 31, 1875; Passed Matric. at Nadiad and afterwards practised at Godha in Panch Mahal; became Barrister; organised Kaira Satyagraha 1918; Nagpur flag Satyagraha, 1923; Borsad no-tax campaign and lastly the Bardoli no-tax campaign, 1928; was President of the Ahmedabad Municipality 1924-28; President of the Congress at Karachi 1931; Chairman of the Congress Parliamentary Sub-Committee 1935-40; had been to jail for several times for Congress cause.

Paranjpe, Sir R. P.—born 6th Feb. 1876, M.A. (Cantab.), D.Sc. (Hon. Calcutta); late Vice-Chancellor, Lucknow University; educated

Ferguson College, Poona, St. John's College, Cambridge, Paris and Gothingen, Senior Wrangler at Cambridge 1899; Principal and Professor, Ferguson College, 1902-26; Minister of Education, Bom. 1921-23 and 1929; President, Indian National Federation; Fellow, Bombay University, 1905-7, member, Bombay Legislative Council 1913-16; Vice-Chancellor, Ind. Women's University (1916-20); member, India Council, 1927-32; Govt. of India's Representative in Australia.

Ray, M. N.—Born February 1893; joined revolutionary movement in 1903; prosecuted for political dacoity in 1906; also involved in Howrah Conspiracy Case in 1908 and Garden Reach Dacoity in 1914; at the outbreak of the War joined in the revolutionary movement; went to China; went to America, went to Mexico and established Communist Party there; was called to Russia by Lenin and became the prominent member of the Communist International; was appointed head of the Eastern Department of the International; edited '*Vanguard*' and '*Masses*' from 1922 to 1928. Became head of the Indian section of the Eastern University, Moscow in 1927; was then expelled for various reasons; Secretly landed in India in 1930; was arrested and tried at Cawnpore and sentenced to 6 years' R. I. After his release in 1936 he joined the Congress; but has left the Congress and has formed Radical Democratic Party.

Raman, Sir Chandrasekhara Venkata, M.A., LL.D. (Glas.), D.Sc. (Cal.), F.R.S.—Was born at Trichi-

nopoly Nov. 1888; educated at the Presidency College, Madras; entered the Finance Department of the Government of India, 1907; Palit Professor of Physics at the Calcutta University 1917; made important contributions to the solution of the problem of atomic structure now known as Raman effect which he discovered in 1928; Knighted in 1929; Research Associate, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, 1924; Lecturer, Mendeleeff Congress, 1925; Matteucci Medalist, Rome, 1929; Hughes Medalist of Royal Society, 1930; awarded the Nobel Prize for Physics, 1930; is also an F.R.S.; received Franklin Medal in 1941—the highest scientific honour of U.S.A., was Director of Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

Radhakrishnan, Sir S., M.A., D.Litt., F.B.A.—Born 5th Sept., 1888; was educated at Vellore and Madras, and was a Professor of philosophy at Madras, Mysore and Calcutta; was appointed Professor King George V of Philosophy in the University of Calcutta, 1921-41; Hibbert lecturer, 1929-30 on "*An Idealist view of Life*"; filled for a while the Chair of Comparative Religions at Manchester College, Oxford; Upton Lecturer, Oxford, 1926; Haskel Lecturer, University of Chicago, 1926; was Vice-Chancellor of Andhra University; was Spalding Professor at Oxford; now Vice-Chancellor of Hindu University; only Indian to hold the Fellowship of the British Academy. Publications—*Hindu View of Life*; *The Kalki*; *Indian Philosophy* (2 vols.), etc.

Rajagopalachariar, C.—born in 1879, educated at Presidency College and Law College, Madras; joined Bar in 1900 in Salem; gave up his practice and joined non-co-operation movement, 1919; served many periods of imprisonment; edited Gandhi's '*New India*', General Secretary of the Congress, 1921-22; member of the Working Committee of Congress up to 1935; was the President of the Tamil Nadu Congress Committee, 1935; was Premier in the Congress Ministry at Madras, 1937-39; left Congress in 1942 but joined in 1945.

Rajendra Prasad Dr.—born 3rd Dec., 1884 in Jiradei in the district of Saran (Bihar); passed M.L., 1925; was a prominent member of the Youth Movement of Bihar and leader of the Behari Students' Conference; visited England in 1928; was Senate member and then the Syndicate of the Patna University, 1917; joined Mahatma Gandhi in 1917 in famous Champaran Agrarian affairs; joined the non-co-operation movement in 1920; suspended his practice; was General Secretary of the Congress, 1922; a member of the Working Committee; was in jail several times for civil disobedience movement; was President of the Congress, 1934; was again elected President of the Congress in 1939.

Rahim, Sir Abdur, K.C.S.I. M.A., Bar-at-Law—born 1867, Judge, Madras High Court, 1908; member of the Royal Commission on Public Services in 1912; Knighted in 1919; member of the Governor's Executive Council, Bengal 1921-25; President, Indian Legislative As-

sembly, 1935-45; author of *Mahomedan Jurisprudence*.

Roy, Dr. B. C., M.R.C.P., F.R.C.S.—A well-known physician of Calcutta; was a prominent member of the Swaraj Party under Deshbandhu C. R. Das; took a leading part in the civil disobedience movement in 1930 and 1932; was a Mayor of Calcutta in 1933; was member, Congress Working Committee; was President of All-India Medical Council; was Vice-Chancellor of Calcutta University.

Sahni, Dr. Birbal—born in Punjab, 1891; educated at Government College, Lahore and also at Cambridge; Professor of Botany, Lucknow University, is a Dean of the Faculty of Science, Lucknow University; was India's delegate to the Third Centenary Celebration of Natural History Museum in Paris, 1935 and represented his University at the International Botanical Congress, Amsterdam, 1935; President, National Academy of Sciences, India, 1937-38; Fellow of the Royal Society, 1936.

Sarker, Nalini Ranjan—born in 1888; Gave up studies in 1906; and joined the Swadeshi Movement entered the National Council of Education; entered Hindustan Co-operative Insurance Co.; and became its Manager; was elected whip of the Swarajya Party in 1923; Elected to the Bengal Legislative Council; Elected President of the Bengal National Chamber 1932, 1934; Represented the Chamber on the Calcutta Port Trust; member, Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee; President of the Federation of the Indian Chamber of Commerce 1933; Mayor of

Calcutta 1934-35; Minister of Finance, Bengal Government 1935; member of the Viceroy's Executive Council which he resigned in 1942.

Sorkar, P. C.—born at Tangail (Mymensingh) in February, 1913; read up to B.A., Calcutta University, gave up studies and became a professional magician; author of more than twelve books on Magic in English, Bengali and Hindi; regular contributor to all magazines; Honoured by the Magicians' Clubs in England & Japan. Better known as *The Man with X-Ray Eyes*.

Suora, Sir Tej Bahadur, Kt. K.C.S.I., D.C.L. (Oxford), P.C.—Born on December, 1875; member, U. P. Legislative Council; Secretary, 25th I. N. Congress, 1910; member, Imperial Legislative Council; Law Member, Government of India, 1920-22; a prominent member of the Liberal Party; Member of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd Round Table Conferences. Member of the Privy Council, leading member of the Non-Party Conference.

Siddique, A. R.—born educated at Ahmedabad and Aligarh; came to Calcutta as assistant of late Maulana Mahomed Ali for editing *Comrade*, joined Dr. Ansari's medical mission to Turkey during Balkan War in 1912; joined Aligarh University and took M.A. degree; joined Wadham College, Oxford; was called to the Bar, 1922; visited Near East several times and led the Indian Moslem Delegation to the World Moslem Congress, Cairo, 1938, a member of the Moslem League Working Committee; Mayor of Calcutta in 1940; now member, Central Assembly.

Singh, Sir Jogendra—born. 1877 Educated privately; began to take interest in journalism at early age; edited *East & West*; Home Member of Patiala State, 1910 and later Prime Minister of the State; Five times President of the Sikh Educational Conference; served on Indian Sugar Committee; Taxation Enquiry Committee; Thrice Member of the Punjab Legislative Council and was Minister of Agriculture 1926-37; now Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council.

Sastri, The Rt. Hon. Srinivasa, P.C.—Born on September 22, 1869; joined Servants of India Society in 1907; Member, Madras Legislative Council 1913-16; a member of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1916-20; represented India at the Imperial Conference in 1921 and at the League of Nations and the Washington Conference; Privy Councillor and received the freedom of the City of London in 1921; member of the Council of State 1921-24; Agent of the Government of India to South Africa 1927-29; Member of the Round Table Conference, 1930-31; Member, Whitley Commission; was Vice-Chancellor of the Andhra University.

Singh, Srikrishna—born Oct. 21 1888; educated at Patna College and qualified for Law in 1915; joined politics in 1921; was chosen as the leader of the Swaraj Party in B. & O. Council in 1927; was a Congress member in the Central Legislative Assembly; was Chairman of the Monghyr District Board in 1932; courted imprisonment for two years; Congress Prime Minister of Bihar 1937-39;

again Congress Prime Minister, 1946.

Saha, Meghnad, D.Sc., F.R.S.—Born 1893.: B.Sc., 1913 (1st Class, 2nd in Mixed Mathematics), P.R.S. and D.Sc. 1919. Worked at the Imperial College of Science, London and Berlin; Lecturer, College of Science, Cal. University; Khaira Professor of Physics, Cal. University, 1921-23; Professor, Allahabad University, 1923 and Head of the Department of Physics. Fellow of the Royal Society in recognition of his famous work on the theory of Stellar spectra; President Indian Science Congress, 1934; Corresponding Member of the German Academy of Sciences; Carnegie Research Scholar for 1935-36; Delegate to the Volta centenary in Italy, 1927; Attended Harvard University Centenary celebration in America in 1933; is the founder President of National Academy of Sciences; now Palit Professor of Physics, Calcutta University.

Singh, St. Nihal—b. on 30 May, 1884, Author, journalist, lecturer, traveller, served as special correspondent of '*Observer*' and other papers during Prince of Wales' visit to India 1921-22; contributed to magazines, newspapers, reviews all over the world; has lectured before prominent societies; author of many books, contributor to '*Hindu*', Madras, '*Literary Digest*', America.

Singh, Sachchidananda, Bar-at-Law—First elected Deputy President, Indian Legislative Assembly; first Indian Finance Member of the Government of Bihar and Orissa, 1921-26; also President of Legisla-

tive Council 1921-22. Vice-Chancellor, Patna University, 1936; born Nov. 10, 1871; Educated at the Patna College and City College, Calcutta, called to the Bar 1893; Founded and edited *'The Hindusthan Review'* from 1899-1922; twice elected member, Imperial Legislative Council; elected to Legislative Assembly 1920 also elected its first Deputy President, Feb. 1921. Established and endowed in 1924 the Srimati Radhika Institute in memory of his wife; Author of *'The Partition of Bengal or the Separation of Bihar'*, *'Speeches and writings of Sachchidananda Sinha'* (1935).

Sarkar, Sir Jadunath, Kt.—B. Dec. 10, 1870; C.I.E., M.A. (1892, 1st class, 1st in English with record marks); Gold Medalist and Prizeman; P.R.S., D.Litt. (Dacca), and Mouat Medalist, 1897. Professor, Metropolitan Institution, 1893; Professor, Presidency College, 1898-1901; Patna College, 1899-1917. Head of the Indian History Department, Benares Hindu University, 1917-1919; Indian Educational service 1918; professor, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, 1919-23; Patna College again 1923-26, C.I.E. 1926. Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University, 1926-27, Honorary Fellow, Royal Asiatic Society; Member of the Historical Records Commission; Sir William Marris Lecturer (Madras University); author of *Aurangzeb*, 5 vols., *Sivaji*, *Fall of the Mughal Empire*, etc.

Savarkar, Vinayak Damodar—Born 1883 at Nasik. Bar-at-Law; educated at Ferguson College, Poona, joined Nationalist movement; was sent to England where

he worked for Indian political advancement under Shyamaji Krishnavarma and Madame Cama; was arrested in England for Nasik conspiracy case, but escaped from ship at Marseilles in 1910, but was re-arrested and transported for 15 years; was sent to Andamans where afterwards interned at Ratnagiri; was set free by interim Bombay Ministry 1937; is a linguist and poet; was President of the Hindu Mahasabha for several years.

Saadulla, Sir Muhammad—B. 1886; educated at Cotton College, practised as lawyer in Gauhati, 1909-19; member, Assam Legislative Council 1913-20; Minister, Assam Government, 1924-29; member, Executive Council, Assam, 1929-30; Prime Minister of Assam 1937-38 and again 1939-42.

Sitaramayya, Dr. Pattabhi—started his life as medical practitioner at Masulipatam in 1906; has been a member of the A. I. C. C. since 1916; edited an English weekly, the *'Janmabhumi'*, was a member of the Working Committee for several years, was defeated by Subhas Bose in the Congress Presidential election in 1939; has written the official history of the Congress.

Sultan Ahmed, Sir—born on 24th Dec., 1880, called to the Bar in 1906; Dy. Legal Remembrancer, Bengal, 1911; Government Advocate, 1916-37; was a judge of the Patna High Court and a member of the Governor's Executive Council, 1932 & 1937; Vice-Chancellor of the Patna University, 1923-30; was a member of 1st & 2nd R. T. C.; was closely associated with the birth

of the Moslem League ; Commerce Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council, 1944-43 ; Information Member 1943-45.

Subedar, Manu—Educated in Bombay and London Universities, Lecturer in Economics, Bombay University ; Prof. Calcutta University ; sent to England by Government of India to give evidence before the Babington Smith Committee ; member of the Central Banking Enquiry Committee ; member, Bombay Corporation ; Vice-President, Indian Merchants' Chamber 1932 ; member Central Legislative Assembly since 1937.

Sri Prakash—b. 1890 ; member A.I.C.C. ; member Benares Municipal Board 1921-25 ; General Secretary of the Congress 1929-31 ; imprisoned for Congress activities in 1930, 1932, 1941 and 1942 ; Congress member of the Central Assembly since 1935.

Srivastava, Sir J. P. K.B.E.—Member for Food, Viceroy's Executive Council ; educated at Cawnpur and Muir Central College, Allahabad, passed B.Sc. ; studied at Manchester School of Technology ; became Principal of the Textile School, Cawnpur ; Industrial Chemist to U. P. Government ; became head of member of Textile mills and industrial concerns in U. P. ; Managing Director of the *Pioneer* ; was elected to U. P. Legislative Council from Upper India Chamber of Commerce ; Honorary Chairman of the Cawnpur Improvement Trust ; Minister of Education and Industries, U. P. Government 1931-37 ; Member of the National Defence Council.

Tata, J.R.D.—born 1904 ; joined Tata Sons Ltd. in 1922 ; First pilot to qualify in India 1929 ; appointed Chairman Tata Sons Ltd., 1938 ; now Chairman and Director of all Tata and Associated Companies ; one of the Authors of '*Bombay Plan*'.

Tagore, Abanindranath, C.I.E. Born, 7th Aug., 1871.—Artist, the leader of Art Renaissance in Bengal and the founder of the Modern School of Indian Artists ; Great-grandson of Prince Dwarkanath Tagore, nephew of poet Rabindranath ; Was educated at Sanskrit College, Calcutta and privately at home. Took lessons in European art from Signor Gilhardi, an Italian artist and Mr. Palmer. But after some time gave up painting after European style and began studying ancient Hindu and Moghul art. Brought a revival of the same. Painted more than two hundred pictures of which the most famous are perhaps the '*Banished Yaksha*', '*Passing of Shah Jehan*' and the '*Queen of Asoka*'. Recipient of many medals and first prizes. Was the Vice-Principal of the Government School of Art, Calcutta from 1905-1916 and also Principal ; founder of the Indian Society of Oriental Arts ; was elected President of the Visva-Bharati in 1941 Publications : '*Bharat Silpa*' (Bengali) '*Raja Kahini*', '*Kshirer Putul*', '*Sakuntala*', '*Bhut Pattri*' and '*Nalak*'.

Trivedi, Sir Chandulal—born 2nd July 1893 ; educated at Elphinstone College, Bombay and St. John's College, Oxford ; entered I.C.S. in 1917 ; Dy. Secretary

(Home Dept.) Govt. of India 1932; Chief Secretary, Govt. of Central Provinces & Berar, 1937-42; Secretary to the Govt. of India (War Dept.) 1942-45. Now Governor of Orissa.

Thakurdas, Sir Purshotamdas, C.I.E., M.B.E.—Born on May 30, 1881; was educated at the Elphinstone College and joined the firm of Narandas Jayaram, 1902; Sheriff of Bombay, 1920; cap State, 1932; member Incharge of his Committee. Member, Council of State, 1922-23; member Legislative Assembly, 1924-30; Thrice President of the Indian Merchants' Chamber, President, Indian Chamber of Commerce, Member of the Royal Commission on Currency; Vice-Chairman of the Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee.

Tiwana, Major Malik Khizar Hayat Khan—Born 7th August, 1900; educated at Aitchison Chief's College, Lahore, received commission in the army 1918; was Minister of Public Works, Punjab, Chief Minister, Punjab since 1942.

Usman, Sir M., K.C.S.I.—born 1884; educated Madras Christian College, member Madras Legislative Council 1921-23; Sheriff of Madras 1924; member, Madras Executive Council 1924-25; officiating Governor of Madras, May-Aug. 1934; President, Madras Corporation, 1924-25; Vice-Chancellor, Madras University, 1940-42; now member, Viceroy's Executive Council.

Vijayaraghavachariar, Dewan Bahadur, Sir—born 1875 at Karur, South India; Secretary,

Board of Revenue 1917-18; Dewan of Cochin, 1919-32; Commissioner for India, British Empire Exhibition, 1922-25; member Public Services Commissioner, 1926-29; leader of the Indian delegation, International Agricultural Conference at Rome (1930); Vice-Chairman, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

Visvesvaraya, Sir M., K.C.I.E.—Born in 1861 in Kolar District. Graduated from Central College, Bangalore, 1881; studied engineering at Poona, joined Bombay engineering service and retired in 1909; appointed Chief Engineer of the Mysore State 1909; and he executed his amazing feats of engineering skill; was appointed Chairman of the Bombay Irrigation Enquiry Committee; Chairman of the Indian Economic Enquiry Committee 1925; Member, Bombay Back Bay Enquiry Committee, 1926; 1919-20; Dewan of Mysore, 1912-18; His notable books: *A Planned Economy for India*, *Reconstructing India*.

Walchand Hirachand—born at Sholapur, 1882; began his life as a contractor after finishing education; President, Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay, 1927; President, Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce, 1932-37; President, Indian National Ship-owners' Association; Employers' delegate to Conference at Geneva, 1932; Vice-President, International Chamber of Commerce, Paris since, 1934; Chairman, Scindia Steam Navigation Co., Director, Associated Cement Co., Ltd., Tata Chemicals Ltd., etc.

